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ABSTRACT

Guidelines intended to aid in the improvement of foreign language instruction are directed toward the development of a relevant and contemporary language program. Six major chapters discuss: (1) the place of foreign languages in the modern curriculum, (2) the program in operation, (3) treatment of skills and cultural concepts of contemporary society, (4) evaluation of basic skills, (5) materials and equipment for language instruction, and (6) organization of curriculum, staff, and space. Frequent use is made of pictures and diagrams. Selected references are included. (RL)

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Foreign Language Guidelines

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FL002156

Foreign Language Guidelines

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Foreword

The increased participation of the United States of America in world affairs in an age of accelerating modes of transportation and communication has made it clear that more Americans should be able to communicate in at least one of the other languages of the world and to have a cultural understanding of the people of the language.

There is strong agreement that the study of a foreign language, contemporary or classical, should have an integral place in the school curriculum and be available to all American elementary and secondary students whether or not they plan to continue their study programs in colleges or universities.

During the past decade there have been revolutionary changes in the teaching of modern foreign languages greatly helped by the National Defense Education Act of 1958 which aided in the provision of new instructional materials, equipment and special institutes for the re-education of teachers in new trends in foreign language methodology.

The representative committee of foreign language teachers and consultants who prepared this publication hope that it will aid in the improvement of foreign language instruction in the State of Washington. Furthermore, *Foreign Language Guidelines* should provide a basis for better understanding — by administrators, counselors and teachers — of the objectives of the contemporary foreign language program in the elementary and secondary schools of our nation.

Louis Bruno

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State Superintendent
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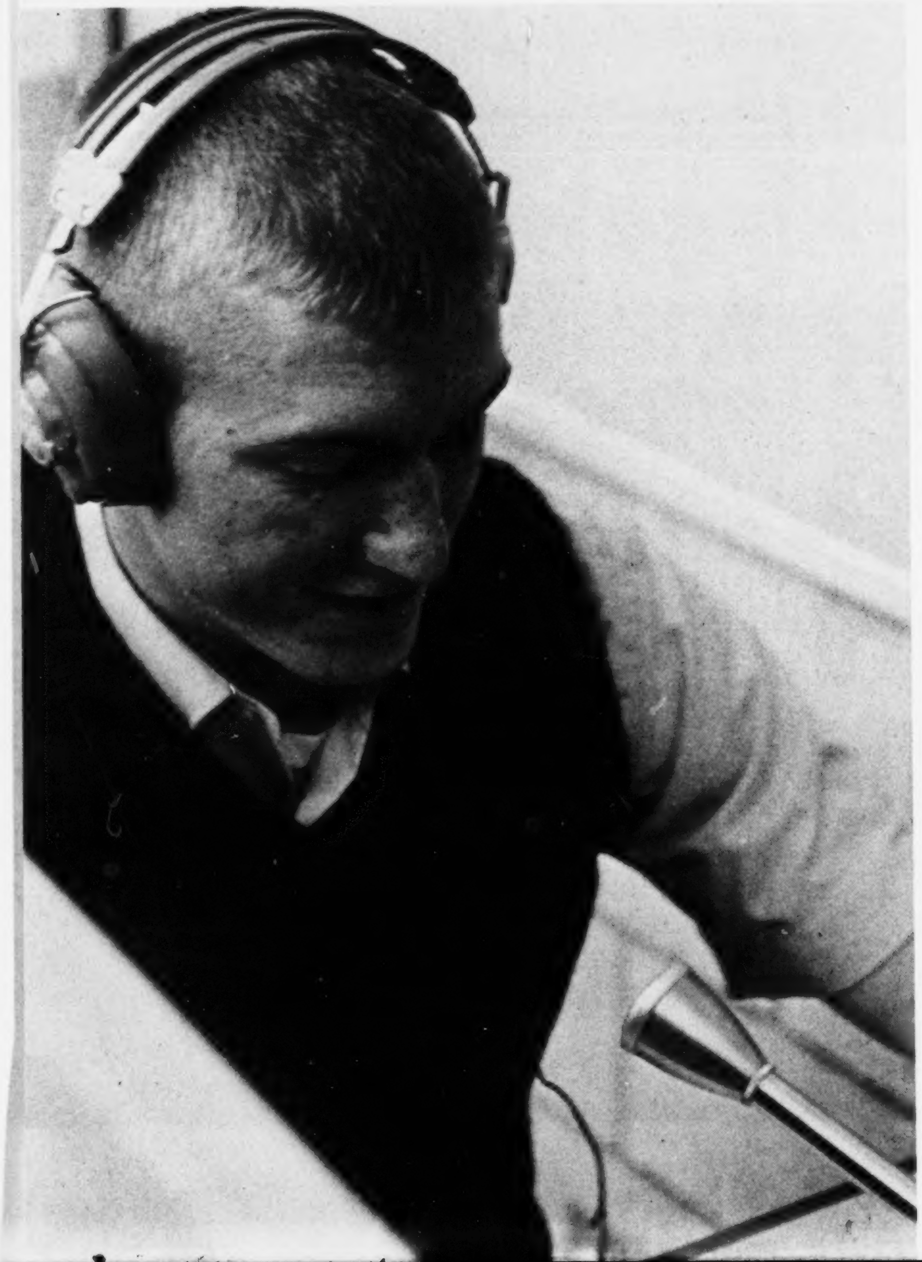
Chapter I

The place of foreign languages in the modern curriculum



Why teach foreign languages?

Language is without doubt the most important and all-pervasive human invention. It is easy to understand the importance of knowing *a* language, our own native language, for example.

People differ from the lower creatures in a number of ways, but most obviously in the way they think, accumulate knowledge and pass it on to new generations. Language is the major means of carrying out one's role as a human being. This is such an inescapable fact that everybody learns one language as a matter of course, and all societies use language in educating their young and, in fact, in all other pursuits.

An equally obvious fact is that humanity has existed since time immemorial divided into separate cultures — all participating in the human condition, but each different from all the others and each using a language different from all the others.

Even subcultures in the same society show as much variation in language as in general cultural patterns. Each culture has a unique set of values which it symbolizes in a unique set of language patterns. Each language is the only accurate expression of the culture of which it is a part.

Learning a foreign language helps him become part of a larger humanity and gives him a look from the outside at his own culture.

Even relatively isolated farmers in Switzerland learn more than one language. Here, farmers "take a break" in the sunshine by their barn at Klosters.

—Swiss National Tourist Office

The point is this. While it is significant that man uses language, it is equally significant that he uses many languages.

Any American who for any reason is totally excluded from the use or understanding of English is excluded from taking part in our national existence. By the same line of reasoning, any American who understands and uses *only* English is excluded from taking part in that vast segment of human experience that occurs in the framework of other languages and cultures.

True, we can discuss in English many significant facts about the habitat and behavior of Frenchmen — or of butterflies. We can even go look at them. What we cannot do is to comprehend what it is to *be* a Frenchman or a butterfly, unless we have some means of participating directly in their life experience. We are not likely to find such a means in the case of the butterfly, and this is not so bad, but it would be tragic not to understand as fully as possible what it is to be a human being.

To develop this understanding requires that one experience directly more than a single cultural context of humanity. It is impossible to experience them all and, fortunately, this is *not* a logical necessity. In all branches of human learning we gain our insight into the subject through selected experience.

Learning a modern or classical foreign language is the *only* educational experience that lifts the student out of his habitual association with native language symbols and meanings. It helps him to become a part of a larger humanity and to look from the outside at his own culture. In all other subject matter the content is experienced through the signs, symbols and meanings of English speaking cultures.

The rewards of learning another language are not entirely confined to matters of growth in human understanding. There are practical outcomes for all basic subjects, even such intangibles as mathematics and English literature. The classical and modern foreign languages have necessary functions to fulfill in historical research, scientific communication, commerce, government, leisure activities, travel, diplomacy, religion, military actions and so on.

We justify the required study of all basic subjects on general or abstract ground, knowing full well that most students in science will not become scientists and that most students in arithmetic could get by on far less than we are requiring.

There are practical rewards that relate internally to the individual student. The keener insight into the mechanics of language that helps to put the learner into the mainstream of humanity also serves to make him the master of his own situation. Language is the basic invention that permits the existence and development of all the civilized arts and sciences (including the three R's).

Even a slight advantage in the power to use language reaches into all the corners of life—learning subject matter, earning a living, contracting matrimony or avoiding it, evaluating a political candidate, raising children—the list is endless.

But how can we justify requiring all students to study a foreign language, when we know that many of them will never succeed in reaching these wonderful goals? First, we justify any required subject because it is *important* to everybody, not because its grand aims are always realized. In any subject we know that some students will fail to achieve success. The other necessary answer to the question is that we never know in advance *who* will succeed. Only the student who is admitted into a foreign language class will have a chance to meet its goals and reap its rewards.

What kind of curriculum?

Our chance of success depends to a great degree on the way we approach the task of teaching and learning. A curriculum can bring success only if it reflects the truths we want the student to understand and only if it gives him direct experience. The truths toward which a foreign language course aspires are these: humanity is multi-cultural; each culture has one language; language is culture and is a unique key to the rest of culture; language is something people *do*.

Learning a second language well involves the unconscious acceptance of some of the cultural perspectives of that linguistic community. To use another language well means to have a partial existence in another culture. Thus to function in at least one other culture will yield insights into our multi-cultural humanity.

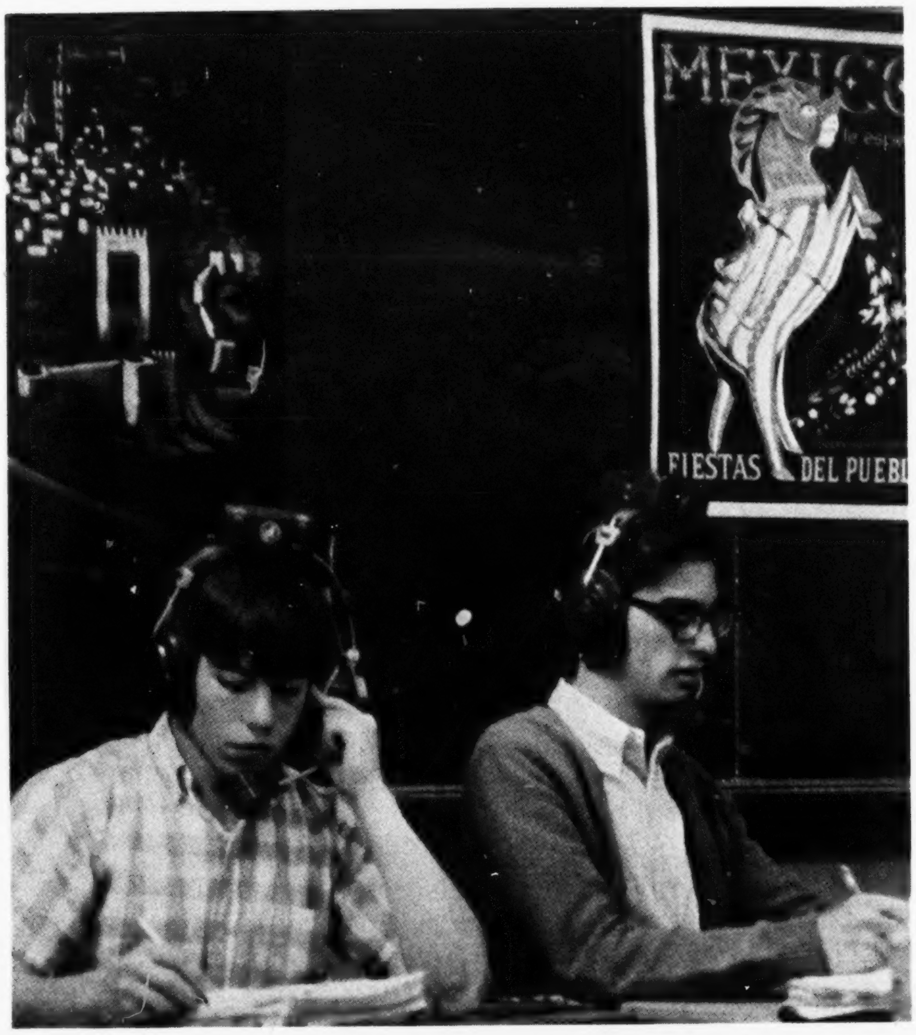
A good foreign language course aims toward two goals — (1) the acquisition of language skills, to make possible verbal communication with people of a different language community or with people of the past through their written records, and (2) through the use of these skills, the development of insights about the whole culture. The challenge facing foreign language teachers is to re-create their discipline so that both of these goals may be realized.

This means that from the beginning in elementary school students must hear real language and speak real language, rather than perform academic exercises that do not constitute experience in the foreign culture. The form and content of their learning must simulate as closely as possible contemporary native usage.

Beginning Latin classes should deal with authentic Latin. In any language, the authentic patterns will be highly organized for drill and less complicated patterns will be chosen for early learning. But, from the start, students will be using real language.

The same principle of keeping to real language should apply to reading and writing, as well as to spoken language. The ideas that students encounter in print should have real relevance to the foreign culture. The people should be real people; the places, real places. As they reach the higher levels of learning in a modern language students should have direct experience of the newspapers, magazines, books and films current in the foreign culture. Ultimately they should learn about the historical foundations of the culture—its politics, religion, poetry, music and great men.

In the mid-fifties at the time of the near demise of language learning in America, we were excessively — sometimes exclusively — concerned with grammatical analysis and with a priggish view of culture that led us to sit in judgment. Any lasting and significant revival of foreign language learning must draw its strength out



Learning a second language involves the unconscious acceptance of some of the cultural perspectives of another community. To use another language well means to have a partial existence in another culture.

of a real contact with those areas of language and culture where the relevance to everyday life is most evident and immediate.

How many years?

The answer to the question *how many years* is not likely to be the same for all learners, but an evasive answer will not suffice. Ultimate success in all the major goals of the foreign-language program depends upon one essential project — achieving a fluent command of the language itself. That is not in itself the entire goal, but anything less falls short of even minimum success, as far as the objectives of a good curriculum are concerned. Even allowing for the fact that this degree of success may involve a fairly limited vocabulary and include only spoken language, it is difficult to see how it could be reached in fewer than four years of daily recitations of less than one hour each.

A really comprehensive curriculum would be six to twelve years in unfolding. It would include provisions for ample practice of all the language skills, and for a truly representative experience in all the major applications of language. Even the student who falls short of minimal success in the program may derive some lasting benefits and personal satisfaction from his experience.

Since the intellectual niche that foreign language learning can fill *will be* filled early in each child's life, either by prejudicial omission or by valid experience, this learning should be started as early as possible. *Useful* language learning is probably possible at any age, but the probability of high success diminishes dramatically from year to year if the start of learning is delayed past the age of ten or so. This kind of learning needs to be started early and pursued for a long time.

Without the fullest use of all the available tools and techniques, even the 700-hour minimum suggested here would be insufficient.

Tools and techniques

Among the tools now widely available for teaching the kind of program we describe are: linguistic descriptions of languages and systems for teaching structure by analogy; new knowledge about the organization of sound systems and improved ways of teaching sound production; language laboratories that allow practice adequate for habit formation; programming of structure and vocabulary within a culturally correct action context.

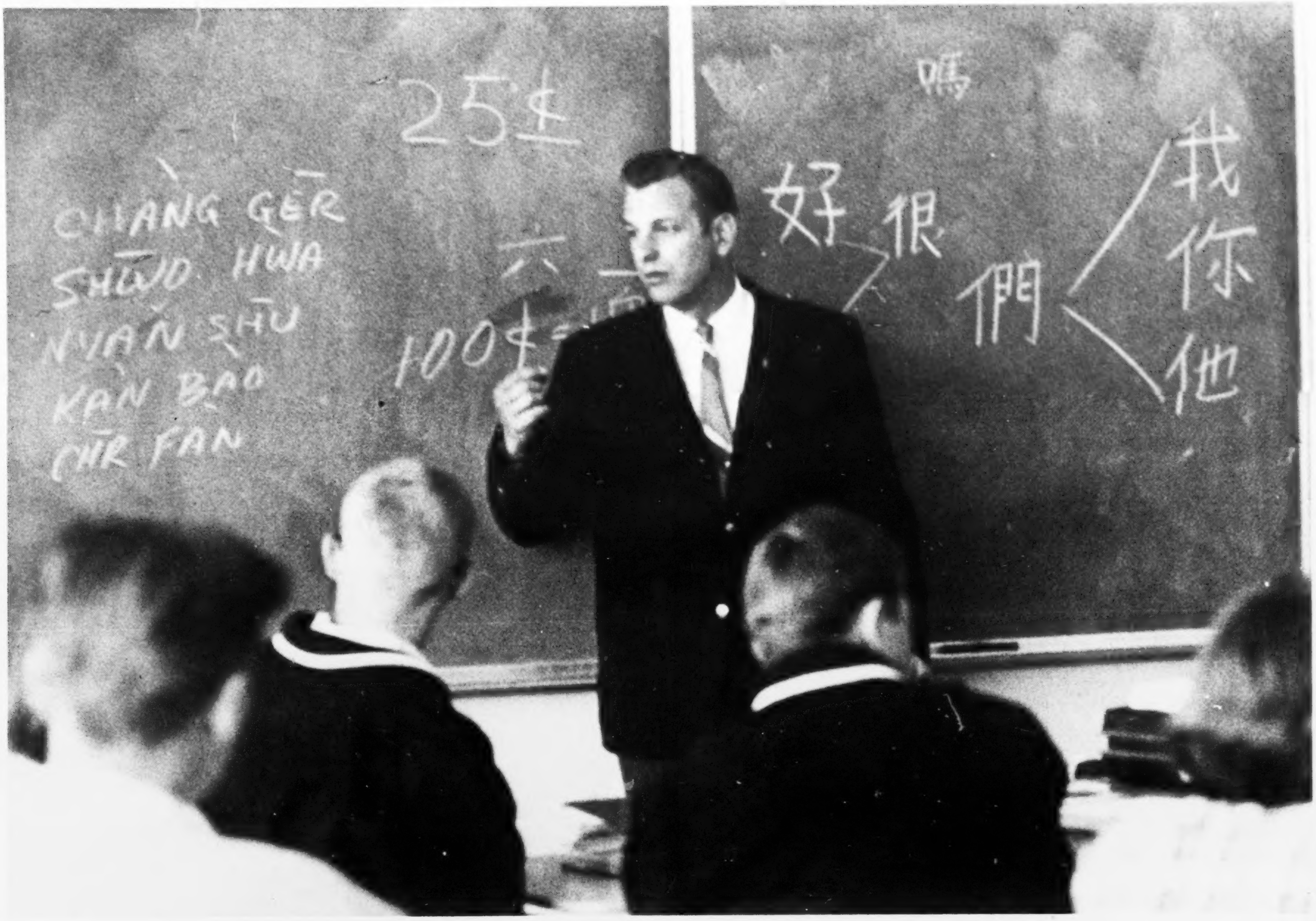
We know more than we knew a few years ago about the stages of development at which children best acquire certain language skills, and we have learned a great deal about the internal logic of each language. This permits a plan that aids rather than hinders the learner's orderly acquisition of language habits.

Finally, the films, filmstrips and audio tapes that now accompany the best teaching materials add dimensions of realism to dialogues, readings and drills that bring the student closer to the complete experience in which language becomes most meaningful and alive.

The new tools when properly used make language learning a functional activity centered on the student's performance rather than on his ability to explain what a book says. The oral skills can be capitalized on and reinforced even while they are still being developed. This is done most economically by teaching the sound signals of the target language through direct manipulation. Even if this procedure amounts to no more than teaching paradigms by sound rather than by spelling, it is an important step toward making language learning more concrete and appealing.

In addition to contributing to the sense of reality, immediacy and concreteness, the new audio visual materials and devices facilitate the controlled presentation of subject matter. The extent to which the student can commit himself emotionally to language practice will be influenced by how close an approximation of the total foreign environment can be created about him.

If we accept the view that language is the key



High school students learn Chinese in a Washington public school.

—Public Information Office

to the structure of reality of a people, then surely a more complete grasp of that reality will be accomplished when practice in the language is supported by every possible auditory and visual clue.

Foreign language study at its best is a growth experience, clearly relevant to the student's own expanding knowledge of himself and his broader environment. It's an experience which opens to him new avenues of perception and self-expression, fitting him to play a more flexible, knowledgeable and appreciative part in both the small and large aspects of his society than would otherwise be possible.

Chapter 2

The program in operation

We have described the role that foreign-language learning should play among other subjects in the school curriculum. Some definition has been given to its purposes and goals. Since function determines form, we can describe now in some detail the course of study itself.

How many languages in a program?

The answer to this question is not to be found by searching through the basic principles of foreign-language learning, since all essential goals can be met in a one-language program. Rather, this question relates to practical matters of school size, available space and facilities, upper and lower limits of class size and a number of local and national factors that determine the *desirability* of offering relatively many or few languages.

In this last category, the national interest obviously requires as much diversification as possible, but it is not necessary to try to teach in one district all the languages that might reasonably be offered *somewhere*.

The factor that most urgently impels a school district to offer as many languages as possible is the diversity of interests and motivations among students. Choosing a language is typically just as irrational a process as choosing a marriage partner, but arranged marriages probably have a better record of success than do forced choices of foreign languages in schools. (The "hard" language is almost invariably one that the student is not eager to learn.)

A good program offers as many choices of language as can be adequately dealt with, at least at higher grade levels. One-language FLES programs do not seem to present any hazard to good motivation and they are certainly more simple to administer than multi-language programs.

It is better at any level to have fully-developed courses in one or two languages than to expend an equal amount of time and resources in numerous partial courses.

Which languages to offer?

Whether a school program includes few or many foreign languages, the problem of selecting those to be offered is essentially the same. The full list of offerings in any one school or district will include only a tiny sampling of the major languages of the world. Of the dozen or so languages taught *somewhere* in American schools, not more than four or five are likely to be offered in any one district.

Since the usual way to selection lies along the path of least resistance, most districts choose from a list that includes only French, German, Latin, Russian and Spanish. Among these only French, German and Spanish are highly probable choices in new programs today.

The main reason for this, other than the force of tradition, is that curriculum development and the production of modern teaching materials have lagged for languages other than French, German and Spanish. Regrettable as the limitation may be, this is a valid reason.

Since it is important to teach other languages, for reasons both public and private, and since it is unacceptable to make do with inadequate curriculum materials, some special responsibilities must be accepted by teachers, supervisors and administrators. In such a case as that of Latin or Russian, nothing may be required beyond an adaptation of some available materials. In other cases, it may be necessary to write a whole course of study, find or produce visuals, record and edit taped exercises and reproduce reading and testing materials for students.

These extra responsibilities that accompany a decision to offer Arabic, Japanese—or any language for which curriculum plans and materials are not fully developed—in effect limit such decisions to school districts that are ready to follow through. This means ready in commitment, in money, in facilities and in personnel.

Districts that are not ready to make unconventional choices can operate a good program within the conventional range. Some effort should be made to find which languages among the possible selections excite popular interest. In counseling students every attempt should be made to discover which language each student really prefers to undertake. If a FLES program is confined to one language, it should be one to which the community reacts very favorably.

The full list of offerings in any one school will include only a tiny sampling of the major languages of the world. And only French, German and Spanish are highly probable choices in the new programs today. (Above) Belgian children parade in historical costumes at carnival time in Hainaut Province.
—Belgian Tourist Office

Teaching materials

Nowadays foreign-language teachers speak of "teaching materials," rather than "the textbook." A course that is conceived as several years of organized, sequential, varied experience requires a sophisticated package of materials.

There must be recorded materials for classroom drill, for laboratory exercise, for listening and for testing.

There must be visual materials for cues in language drills, for cultural earning, for the illustration of geographic facts and for testing.

There must be printed materials to help students learn reading and writing, to develop vocabulary, to present factual and conceptual material about the foreign culture, to foster independent study and to test achievement in the secondary skills.

All materials must be coordinated, and they must be arranged for flexibility of use.

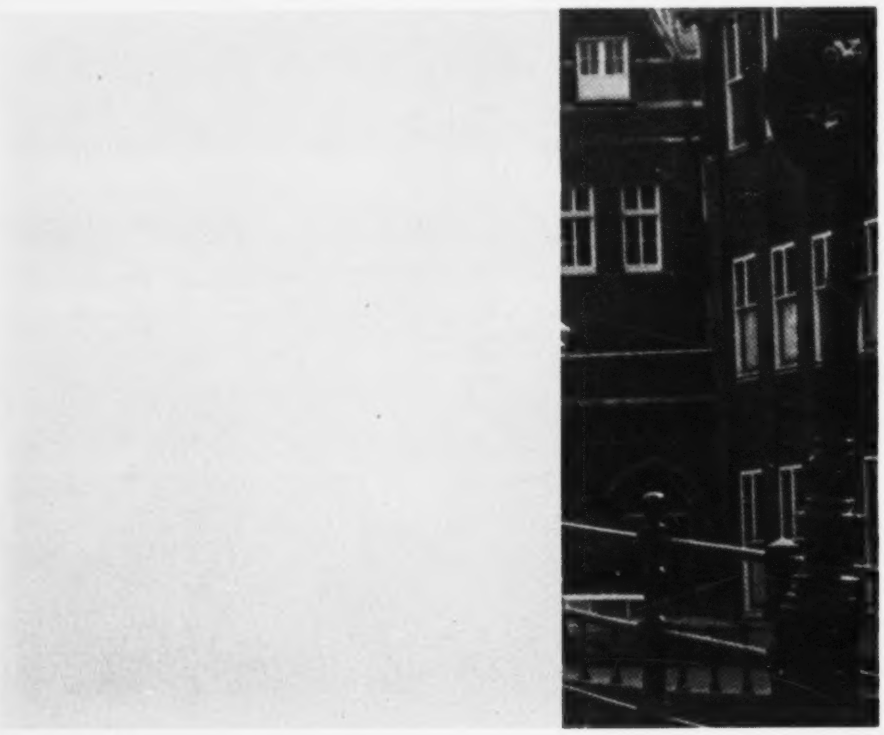
A foreign language class at Madrona Elementary in Seattle discusses the weather. Curriculum development and the production of modern teaching materials have lagged for languages other than French, German and Spanish.

—Royal Crooks

There is not yet any single package that perfectly unites all the attributes to be sought in modern teaching materials. There are a few in French, German and Spanish that come close to meeting all the most important criteria and a few in Russian and Latin that represent a great advance over the old grammar-translation text (Book I and Book II). New materials have been, or are being, produced in many other languages, but most of these are unfinished, unproven, not adopted to school programs, not in mass production or a combination of these deficiencies.

In examining a set of materials to see whether it is suitable for adoption or to determine how much revision and amplification it needs, the following checklist might serve to relate the process to modern curriculum theory:

1. **Quality.** The same high standards of accuracy and technical excellence that would apply to any teaching materials.
2. **Quantity.** Enough material to carry the language learning process through at least the basic skill-learning stages (typically more than three years).
3. **Order.** A distribution of content that begins with a concentration on the skills of spoken language, then progresses to reading and writing. The most advanced work will provide for an integrated use of all skills.
4. **Content.** Exercises, dialogues, reading, etc., that conform to linguistic norms, language-learning theory and the realities of the foreign culture.
5. **Variety.** Provision for multisensory learning, with such things as pictures, maps, charts, slides, films, recordings, books and dramatizations included in the materials; plus suggestions for experiences in foods, trips, newspapers, etc.
6. **Means.** All experiences to provide learning through *practice,* all based on the expectation of success. Exercises calculated to force correct usage, not to invite error. Little dependence on explanation and classification.



Starting points and distribution of experience

Students should start their first foreign-language course no later than grade three. One of the main purposes of FLES is the prevention of childhood biases against other peoples, other cultures, other languages. The mere absence of any positive experience in early childhood would be prejudicial, even if there were no negative influences.

The FLES program is a serious language-learning venture, but it does not propose to finish all that needs to be done. Its most important end products are attitudes. By the end of FLES, the student is proud of his success in mastering another language to a highly useful extent. He has a warm sympathy for one foreign culture and is prepared to meet others with an open mind. He is ready to learn more.

These happy results come only if the program is planned and executed with those ends in mind. Recitation periods are kept short in the lowest grades, gradually lengthened to correspond to the fatigue threshold of maturing children. In grade three, 15 minutes is about right. During the years of skill learning, recitations are on a daily basis. The necessary drill is sweetened by a rapid pace, frequent change, physical movement, pictures, objects, games, songs—but it continues to be drill, and ultimately quite effective.

Good technique leads to success but there is something else that is at least as crucial. The children are surrounded by adults who have a vigorously positive attitude toward language learning. This may be a difficult order for teachers and administrators who are still suffering from the adverse effects of their own FLES-less education. Nonetheless, each principal and teacher shows by word and example that he considers language learning important, absorbing and *possible.* This means smiling participation, not silent neutrality. Children learn more from our example than from our instructions to them.

When the student enters junior high school, he may elect to continue toward a more thorough mastery of the language he began in the elementary school, or he may start a new one. In the former case, he will probably be in the second level (still involved in learning reading and writing). In the latter, he will start from the beginning, but will learn the new language more readily and more accurately for having had FLES. In either case, there is time before high-school graduation to complete a thorough course.

At whatever grade level a foreign language is started, the foreign culture is dealt with from the beginning. It is not possible to do otherwise. The whole culture is so intimately associated with the language that any well-chosen dialogue or sentence drill presents cultural insights. Language can be managed for drill purposes but it must never be distorted, for this violates the integrity of the cultural structure, too. Most learning of

In Everett a Cascade High School teacher monitors students in an electronic classroom.

When children learn a foreign language in primary grades they tend to feel a warm sympathy for that foreign culture. They are ready to learn more about other foreign lands, their history and culture. Pictured are dancers in regional costumes from another era.
—Italian Government Travel Office

"culture" during the first years is closely tied to language patterns, through some of it comes from the visual and tactile experiences that cue and reinforce language learning.

At some point during secondary school, when good control of the four skills has been achieved within a controlled range of structure and vocabulary, the foreign-language course assumes some different characteristics. The emphasis shifts toward individual responsibility, away from teacher-dominated drill. The foreign language becomes a means of examining some larger aspects of culture. This, of course, still results in further skill development, which is necessary, but the polarity of ends and means is reversed. A relatively unorganized flow of language patterns is made to serve an increasingly organized study of the foreign culture.

There are endless possibilities for the content of courses above the third level. Students are able to read and discuss newspaper and magazine articles about current trends in politics, religion, economics, the arts, etc. They can carry on meaningful correspondence with foreign students. They can profitably view foreign films and read or stage mature dramatic works. They can monitor shortwave broadcasts. They can converse with visitors from abroad. They can perform library research in fields of personal interest and deliver oral and written reports to the class. They can begin to explore the foreign literature. They can delve into history.

The farther they go the more new penetrations become possible. Secure in a framework of patiently established skills the student finds in later years a geometric progression of progress in such things as vocabulary building.

Advanced stages of the curriculum are not a formless conglomeration of all the possibilities mentioned above. Nor are they carbon-copies of the traditional college "lit" course. An orderly but varied entry into a whole culture requires just as much planning as does an orderly but varied entry into a whole language. Both require a recognition from the outset that the course of study will not be all-inclusive, nor excessively specialized.

In establishing the secondary school foreign language curriculum and perhaps especially in the curriculum of the less frequently studied languages, due consideration should be given to the fact that those students who are studying a second or a third foreign language have already acquired attack skills in effective language learning. Carry-over is sufficiently strong that even though there are outward differences in structure and organization between the languages, the experienced foreign language student can often forge ahead semi-independently with highly satisfactory results. A second or a third foreign language is more speedily acquired, and thus the pacing of instruction and the timing of the shift of emphasis among the four basic language skills should be adjusted individually for those students already more sophisticated in language learning techniques. Teachers should be prepared to work out contract plans or to utilize other devices, such as the ungraded program, to meet the particular requirements.

The final years of foreign-language courses will not be identical in all districts, nor should they be. They will not even be identical from student to student in the same school.

Administrative form

This chapter has not considered the one-year or two-year high-school course, since its purpose has been to describe a good modern program that corresponds to the purposes of foreign language learning. We do not intend to imply, however, that there is only one valid form for a school program.

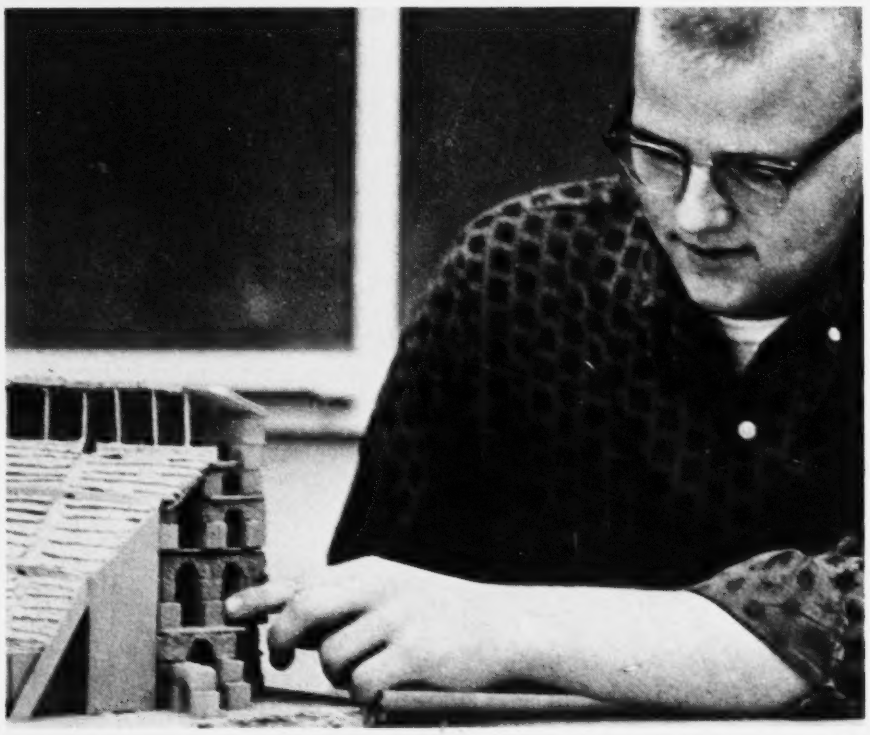
Probably the only irreducible minimum is a good FLES sequence. Beyond that, a school district may provide for a six-year universal requirement, a short requirement plus electives or no requirement at all.

Any course, whether administered as an elective or as a requirement, should extend at least through the skill-building years. To be effective, a program should be administered in a form that allows for the fact that student achievement does not exist in neat one-year units.

What is suggested here is not a system of ability grouping. This kind of grouping has been largely discredited since it involves predictions that we are not equipped to make. What is proposed is achievement grouping (which is based on something we can measure), a system of advancing students according to their progress, ungrading (or whatever nomenclature is fashionable), anything that will keep students learning instead of flunking out or suffering the boredom of going too slowly.

The foreign-language course should be administered as a necessity for college entrance. A good program will serve that purpose and meet the basic educational needs for all students.

Children learn about a foreign language and culture by emulating traditional festivities in other countries.



During secondary school, the foreign-language course emphasis shifts toward individual responsibility, away from teacher-dominated drill. For example this student has elected to build a scale model of an amphitheatre as part of a class project.

Chapter 3

Treatment of skills and cultural concepts

Listening, speaking, reading and writing skills as well as cultural, social and literary concepts have always been treated in foreign language courses. However, the degree of emphasis, the order of presentation and the teaching and learning techniques have changed radically in recent years.

Scientific methods have given us an objective understanding of the nature of language in general and of the similarities and differences between specific languages. The understanding of linguistic principles thus developed enables the teacher to anticipate learning problems, to diagnose and remedy difficulties, to evaluate texts and to prepare new teaching materials. Scientific research has also made possible improved testing and teaching techniques. Other research is in progress to determine valid criteria for selecting significant socio-cultural information.

Basic principles

The modern visual-audio-lingual approaches to language learning are based on the premise that the four basic language skills — listening, speaking, reading and writing — are best learned in a specific sequence. This sequence begins with a solid foundation of aural-oral training which is then integrated with the derived skills of reading and writing.

Listening and speaking are primary skills

Listening comprehension and speaking are the bases of all language. The child understands and speaks long before he reads and writes. Illiterates can develop great facility in listening comprehension and speaking. Historically, language started with oral communication and was followed only much later by writing and reading. Today people listen and speak much more than they read and write. Clearly the skills of reading and writing are secondary and derived from the primary language skills of listening and speaking.

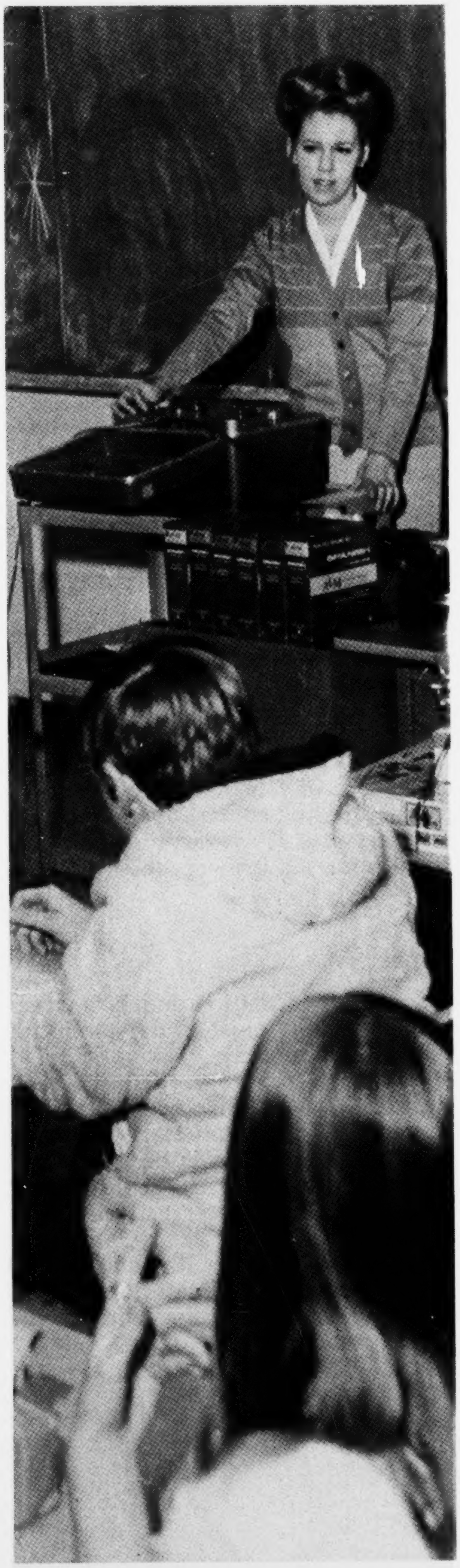
Research has shown there is always some degree of vocalization in reading and writing even a native language. This further emphasizes the primacy of listening and speaking as the natural foundation for reading and writing.

Integrating the skills

Reading and writing should not be presented until the student has mastered the basic sounds of the language in the listening-speaking process described on page 22. Too early an introduction leads the student to apply English sounds to the written symbols of the new language and increases the difficulty of accepting new word orders, structures and idiomatic expressions.

The optimum time for integration of primary and derived skills may not be the same for all languages and all students. For example, the graphic-phonetic interference is greater between German and English than between Russian and English, because the German alphabet resembles the English alphabet much more than does the Russian.

The maturity and the ability of the learner also determine the readiness for reading and writing. Very young children are natural mimics. They learn and retain what they have heard and spoken, often without the reinforcement of reading and writing. Older students feel a need for reading and writing much sooner than does the young child. The teacher must determine the most beneficial time for integration of skills in his particular class.



Structure is learned functionally

The young student learns structure automatically and functionally. Automatic control is achieved via abundant practice with well designed pattern drills. Expressing himself correctly in the foreign language thus becomes a matter of habit formation rather than a futile analysis of rules and their exceptions. The student spends his time using the language rather than learning about the language.

Excellent devices are available for the functional learning of structure without recourse to analysis or translation. Good manuals on modern language teaching techniques describe and illustrate how to use analogical pull, contrastive item substitution, morphological changes, model sentences, etc., to both clarify and provide mastery of structure.

The older the student is, the better he will be able to detect similarities and dissimilarities in the structural patterns he has gained control of via the four skills. It may occasionally be necessary to give a brief explanation of structure in order to clarify an otherwise obscure construction. The teacher must, of course, have a complete knowledge of structure and contrastive linguistics in order to guide learning. However, the rules and their exceptions are for the teacher, generally not for the student.

Priority is on mastery

To assure good habit formation, much practice is needed and the student must understand the purpose and goal of the practice.

The vocabulary is strictly controlled and limited during the first level of learning in order to insure automatic control of the structure so necessary for development of all four skills. What the student knows, he knows well. He acquires the habit of responding quickly and correctly without being blocked by reference to his native language.

Practice tapes and records are invaluable aids in reinforcing and mastering the material that already has been introduced and brought up to "safety level" by the teacher.

Translation is advanced skill

Skill in listening and speaking requires an automatic control of structure which is indispensable to genuine fluency in reading as opposed to broken translation and deciphering. The learner is blocked in reading comprehension and writing to the extent that he translates to or from his native language.

Translation is a separate skill that can best be learned at an advanced level when the student is in control of his native language. He should also have skillful control of the foreign language plus an understanding of both cultures.

Conclusion

Through linguistically well-planned, interesting re-cycling of material, through integration of skills and abundant practice with the five essential steps: recognition, imitation, repetition, variation and selection, the student advances to complete mastery of basic material. Such complex learning takes time. There is no easy or magic way of learning a language; it requires years of practice. Best results are obtained with early beginnings and a long sequence extending through the college years.

Suggested teaching procedures

Although new material is introduced at beginning levels in the order of listening, speaking, then reading and writing, the four skills are used to complement and strengthen each other as soon as the student is ready for such integration. Even after a good beginning has been made, the listening-speaking skills must never be neglected at any level. Attention must be given to all four skills in every class period.[1]

Suggested objectives and procedures are listed below. The ultimate goals attained will depend on the length of the sequence and the interest and ability of the student.

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[1] Suggestions for percentages of daily class time to be devoted to the basic skills at different levels of language learning can be found in Nelson Brooks: *Language and Language Learning.* Pp. 122, 126, 129, 132, and 133.

Children play in the courtyard of an Italian public school.
—Italian Tourist Photo

Objectives in developing listening and speaking skills

Listening

Learning to listen involves the ability to:

1. Discern sounds, rhythm, junctures and intonations in speech at normal rate of speed.
2. Associate sound with meaning by inferring the meaning of words.
    a. From context
    b. Through simple definitions using known words
    c. Through synonyms and antonyms
    d. From clear pictures, actions and *realia*

Speaking

Learning to speak involves the ability to:

1. Mimic utterances.
2. Repeat sentences fluently at standard speed with correct intonation, rhythm, stress and juncture.
3. Answer questions promptly and fluently using memorized responses.
4. Carry out directed dialogue promptly and fluently.
5. Manipulate structures for communication.
6. Converse freely in the target language.

Suggested procedures for developing the listening-speaking skills

Accurate and discerning listening logically precedes speaking. Since the speaker cannot imitate accurately what he has not heard clearly, good listening habits must be established from the very beginning.

A high school student does not find it necessary in other classes to listen for minute details of sound. Careful training in listening is needed before he can hear and imitate sound correctly. The younger the child, the easier such learning will be.

A pre-reading stage, during which there is no reference to graphic symbols of words, is used to train the students to listen, comprehend and pronounce correctly in the foreign language without interference from the printed word. The topics dealt with in the pre-reading materials are based on objects and situations already familiar and visible to the student. Stick figures, puppets, cartoons, films, filmstrips and transparencies aid comprehension of the spoken sentences.

Simple pictures of members of the family and everyday activities, gestures and dramatizations are also clues to meaning. Ideally, any picture or gesture shown would depict people and actions culturally authentic in the country of the target language.

The modern foreign language class is conducted in the target language and the materials are selected to make this possible. In an emergency, a brief explanation may be given in the native language but this should be held to an absolute minimum. The time in class is needed for practicing the language and should not be used to describe the language. Appropriate modern materials are indispensable. See section on Materials, page

Listening precedes speaking. Careful training in listening is essential to learning a foreign language.
—Z. Lichtenberg

Initial learning

As new material is introduced, the student hears and repeats native pronunciation and intonation of short sentences modeled either by the teacher or by a tape. The teacher may call for choral practice first by the entire class, then by various sections of the class, by rows and by individual students. Most modern texts have a section on how to conduct choral practice.

All language learning is in sentence form. Isolated words or lists of words are a hindrance to learning. The sentences must be authentic speech as used by native speakers and form dialogues and situations of interest to the learner.

Reading and copying of the material already mastered in listening and speaking serve to fix the learning in the student's memory.

Habits are formed by practice

The foreign language learner is provided with varied drills and abundant mimicry-memorization practice structured according to the principles of contrastive linguistics and spoken by a variety of voices at a normal rate of speed and using standard pronunciation.

Pronunciation of the new sentences is brought up to safety level in the classroom, then practiced intensively and overlearned in the foreign language laboratory until the sentences can be reproduced without hesitation and fumbling.

Pattern drills focus on structure

The student is learning grammar from the very first day of contact with the foreign language. Grammatical structures are taught in context, not by rule or paradigms without practical application. For example, "I go" will be followed by "to school" rather than by "you go, he goes."

A pattern drill is a form of listening-speaking exercise related to and integrated with familiar material in vocabulary and structure and focusing on one structural point. New structure and new vocabulary are not introduced simultaneously in pattern drills. Learning is more efficient when the learner's attention is concentrated upon one new problem at a time. New structures are more readily learned through sentences that use well-

If you were in this foreign
country you would learn the
language by practical applica-
country you could learn the
tion. Modern classroom tech-
niques also provide practical
learning experiences.
—Z. Lichtenberg

known vocabulary. After the structure is mastered, new vocabulary can be fitted into the grammatical pattern.

The sentences selected for pattern drills introduce the grammatical patterns of the language and furnish intensive practice on conflict points. The pattern drill encourages the student to understand grammatical relationships by analogy. When the student has mastered the oral pattern drill, it is reinforced by reading and writing.

While the patterns are being overlearned through practice with many examples and drills, the advanced student may be guided to analyze, discriminate and make generalizations about the language structures.

Every effort should be made to avoid boredom and monotony when working with pattern drills. It is helpful to conduct drills of short duration and weave them into the instruction at different points of the lesson whenever they can by related to the material under discussion. Varying the drills by using the names of the students in the class, names of their teachers and of well-known persons, situations currently of interest in the school and community as well as in the foreign country, or interspersing a riddle, a rhyme or a song between patterns helps to hold the interest of the student.

It must be kept in mind, though, that the purpose of the pattern drill is to lead to automatic control of basic structure. The student should be helped to understand that it is the drilling and overlearning which will give him the automatic response so necessary for fluency in all skills.

Some characteristics of a good pattern drill are:

1. Clear instructions to the student.
2. Only five to eight stimulus-response pairs.
3. A limited and consistent pattern of change.
4. A pause long enough for response.
5. Correct response always given by model.

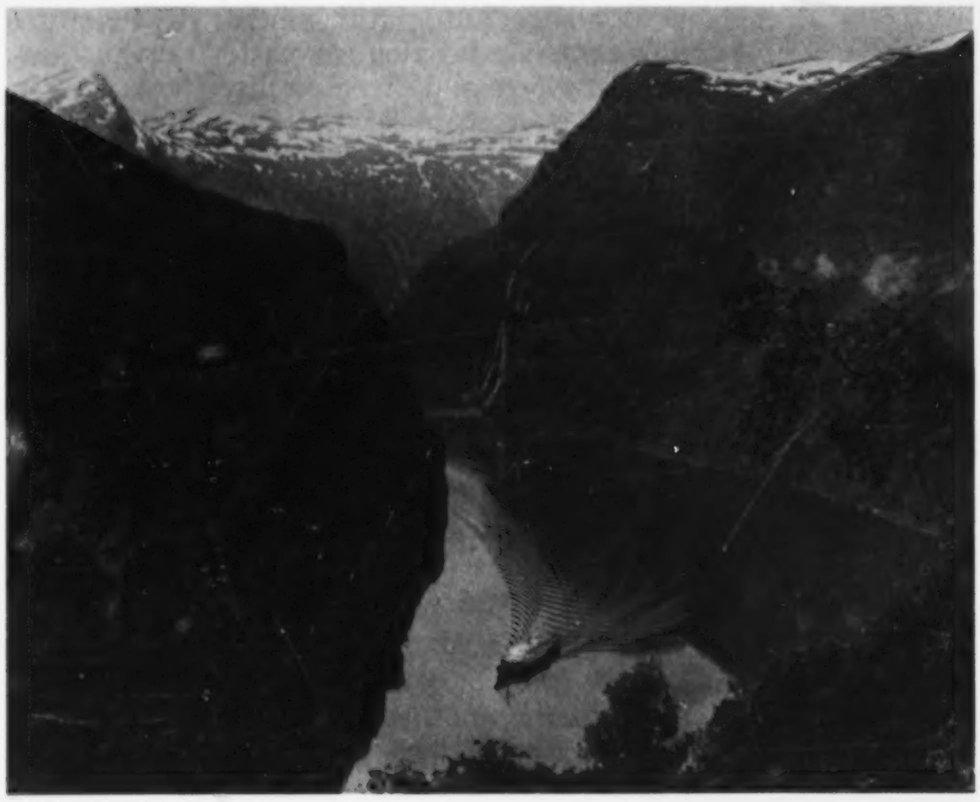
Many types of pattern drills are described in detail by Brooks and Lado.[2] The pattern drill can be used at any level of instruction when integrated with current work.

The structural patterns must become so firmly habituated at the elementary and intermediate level that the student will fit his thoughts into the correct structural mold without conscious effort.

When the student is able to use the language freely in asking and answering questions, making statements or giving a talk on a specified subject, then the pattern drills have completed their mission.

In Switzerland, the people easily learn many languages in order to communicate. In this Geneva restaurant, the language appears to be French.

—Swiss National Tourist Office



A cruise through Norway's Geiranger Fjord.

—Norwegian National Tourist Office

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[2] Nelson Brooks: *Language and Language Learning.*
Robert Lado: *Language Teaching.*

In the initial stages many techniques must be used to elicit speech without ever putting the student in the position of having to invent language. A Spanish puppet show brings a happy response, helps increase fluency.

Transition from mimicry-memorization to oral expression

Speaking a foreign language involves more than the ability to hear and imitate the sentence heard. In the initial stages many techniques must be used to elicit speech without ever putting the student in the position of having to invent language.

Speaking should always be guided in such a manner that the student is led to give the correct response. In order to talk, a student must have a model to follow and something to say. All practice must be built on forms already brought up to safety level.

Devices for eliciting speech include:

1. Asking questions which the student can answer with a sentence already memorized.
2. Asking questions which provide the content and structure of the answer.
3. Phrasing questions which the student can answer by using a sentence from the conversation or story being worked with.
4. Directing a student to ask a question of another student (directed discourse).
5. Directing chain practice.
6. Having the student respond to pictures or drawings illustrating sentences he already knows.
7. Directing a student to speak as if he were the character X in the conversation, then asking him key questions to remind him of content if necessary.

Vocabulary is limited in the initial learning stages to insure automatic control of structure. Through controlled dialogues, pattern drills, questions and answers and directed discourse, the student acquires a store of patterns that are the foundation of later free conversation. True free conversation cannot be developed in a short sequence.

As the student gains control of structure, activities to stimulate free conversation will include:

1. Giving the student a small object to hold from the foreign country such as a toy house, a church, a record, an animal, a car and other small toys which can serve as a starting point for oral expression limited to known material.
2. Telling the beginning of a known story and asking a student to complete it.
3. Assigning oral reports on a specified topic.
4. Suggesting possible ways of developing a discussion and providing formulas for making different types of contributions to a discussion.

A topic for free conversation and a study of culture: comparing the modern Toledo, Spain, to the feudal town it was a few centuries back.

—Courtesy Spanish Consulate, San Francisco

Expected outcomes

The starting point, then, is one consisting of simple mimicry-memorization. To progress from the purely imitative stage and directed response to oral expression requires a definite plan of learning, special teaching techniques and a gradual reduction of the controls built into the material. Guided practice, manipulation of patterns, variation, adaptation and integration with reading and writing advance the learner to the point where after a long sequence of study he can understand and communicate that which he has not learned by rote memory.

For evaluation, see Chapter 4.

As the student gains control of structure, activities to stimulate free conversation will include assigning oral reports on a specified topic, such as beautiful old Swiss china.

—Swiss National Tourist Office

Top—A typical young working woman in western Europe.
Z. Lichtenberg

Lower—In a secluded area of central Europe, herb gatherers return home.
—Swiss National Tourist Office

Objectives in developing

reading and writing skills

Reading

The primary objective of the reading program is to develop the ability to read for meaning directly in the foreign language without interference from the native language.

Learning to read involves the following progression:

1. Recognizing the written symbols.
2. Recognizing the relationship between sound and symbol.
3. Reading aloud fluently using correct pronunciation.
4. Reading silently for comprehension.
5. Reading independently of classroom activity.

Writing

The primary objective of the writing program is to develop the ability to write without reference to English and with appropriate form and content for effective communication.

Learning to write involves the following steps:

1. Forming symbols correctly (pre-writing).
2. Learning to associate sound with the appropriate symbol (imitative writing, copying and dictation).
3. Manipulating structure and vocabulary (guided and controlled writing).
4. Writing a communication whose length, form, style and vocabulary are suited to the subject and the intended reader.

The proficiency attained will depend on the length of the sequence and on the interest and ability of the student.

Traditional graduation ceremony, northern Europe.
—Scandinavian Travel Commission

Suggested procedures for developing skills

Although classroom learning cannot and should not reproduce the process of first language learning, the elements and the order of learning remain the same. As in childhood, utterances and their appropriate gestures are first heard and seen, then mimicked before reading and writing are introduced.

In the classroom the transition from the spoken to the written word is considerably shorter than in childhood learning of the native language, but the primary skills of listening and speaking remain a necessary foundation for the derived reading and writing skills.

Reading and writing are developed almost concurrently and integrated with the other skills in such a manner that each skill complements and reinforces the other three.

Reading and writing are, as are the other language skills, closely tied to the understanding of cultural concepts.

Specific practices have proved helpful in developing these skills.

Guided reading

Oral presentation of new material precedes oral and silent reading during the first level to insure comprehension without translation and to preserve pronunciation fluency.

The first sentences read are those already comprehended and memorized. When the student later learns new material on his own, he continues to read for direct comprehension without being blocked by reference to his native language.

The student's progress in reading depends more on his quick recognition of basic structures than on the size of his vocabulary. The meaning of new words can often be inferred from context, but unfamiliar grammatical structures can slow down comprehension. It is therefore helpful to spend a good deal of time gaining aural-oral control of basic structures before extensive reading is undertaken.

Suggestions for guiding comprehension of a new reading lesson include:

1. The teacher gives a brief oral introduction to the story using well-known vocabulary, pictures, gestures and dramatization to aid comprehension. To insure attention, books are closed during steps one and two.
2. The whole story or a meaningful part is read by the teacher or played on the tape recorder. The meaning of new words is taught by means of synonyms, antonyms, definitions, examples, simplified restatement, clues in context and other devices in the foreign language.
3. Books are opened. The teacher leads the class in choral reading and asks guiding questions that can be answered with sentences from the text. Special drills are provided on troublesome points.
4. Individual students may then read the selection orally. Questions, the answers to which are designed by the teacher to form a summary of the story, can be on the board or on ditto sheets for the student to answer orally and in writing.

5. The teacher asks personal questions and directs students to ask questions of each other enabling them to use the new vocabulary in known situations. The questions and answers can serve as a review of both old and recent material.
6. Students may answer multiple choice and true-false questions orally.
7. The assignment may call for five or six questions to be answered orally and in writing. At the intermediate level the student may make up his own questions, write a four to five sentence summary or read the story in a different person or tense. Individual differences are provided for by differentiated assignments.

The student should be helped to understand that clues to meaning may be found in the previous as well as in the following sentences of a reading passage. Subsequent use of the new vocabulary will help to clarify meanings as also happens in the continued learning of vocabulary in the native language.

Intelligent guessing about meaning also requires a knowledge of values, attitudes and behavior of a people. It may be necessary to explain certain aspects of culture which are unknown to the learner.

Silent reading

At the intermediate and advanced levels, extensive silent reading of new material should be practiced. New words are introduced at a rate at which their meaning can largely be inferred from context without slowing down rapid reading.

Silent reading should be carefully controlled to insure maximum attention and learning. A time limit can be set for the selected piece and key questions put on the board to permit the student to check his comprehension. A written or oral comprehension quiz should conclude the silent reading lesson.

Supplementary reading

Every effort should be made to obtain reading materials of high value and at the interest and ability level of the student. See also Literature, page 40, and Materials, page 68.

Independent supplementary reading aims to extend the reading power of the individual student. It can also be used to promote conversation based on student reports.

A list of available supplementary materials with level of difficulty indicated could have a permanent place on the bulletin board. New materials can be displayed attractively in the library corner of the classroom.

After four to five years of a carefully developed reading program closely integrated with the other three skills and with the understanding of culture, the student should be able to read a wide variety of foreign language materials.

Developing the writing skill

A long series of skillfully planned steps and the gradual relaxing of controls are necessary to develop proficiency in writing a native language as well as a foreign language.

At the beginning level of language learning, writing serves as a means of reinforcing patterns which have already been practiced orally and in reading. The student is allowed to use only structure and vocabulary already learned in the other skills and is never put into a position of having to invent or create language. Relaxing controls too early forces the student into attempts to write from the point of view of his native language. The result is unacceptable.

Pre-writing

If the target language uses a writing system very different from English, the student should be shown the easiest way of forming and remembering the new symbols. If a workbook designed for the purpose is not available, large drawings of the letters and dittoed material are helpful. Arrows should indicate where to begin each letter and also the complete course the pen must follow in order to connect the strokes and letters.

After watching a blackboard demonstration, the student may need to practice forming the letters before going on to freehand writing. The writing of characters resembling those already familiar to the student from his own language will precede the learning of entirely new forms. Letters may be grouped according to similar or contrasting features in order to facilitate recall.

It's a good idea to spend time gaining aural-oral control of basic structures before extensive reading is undertaken.

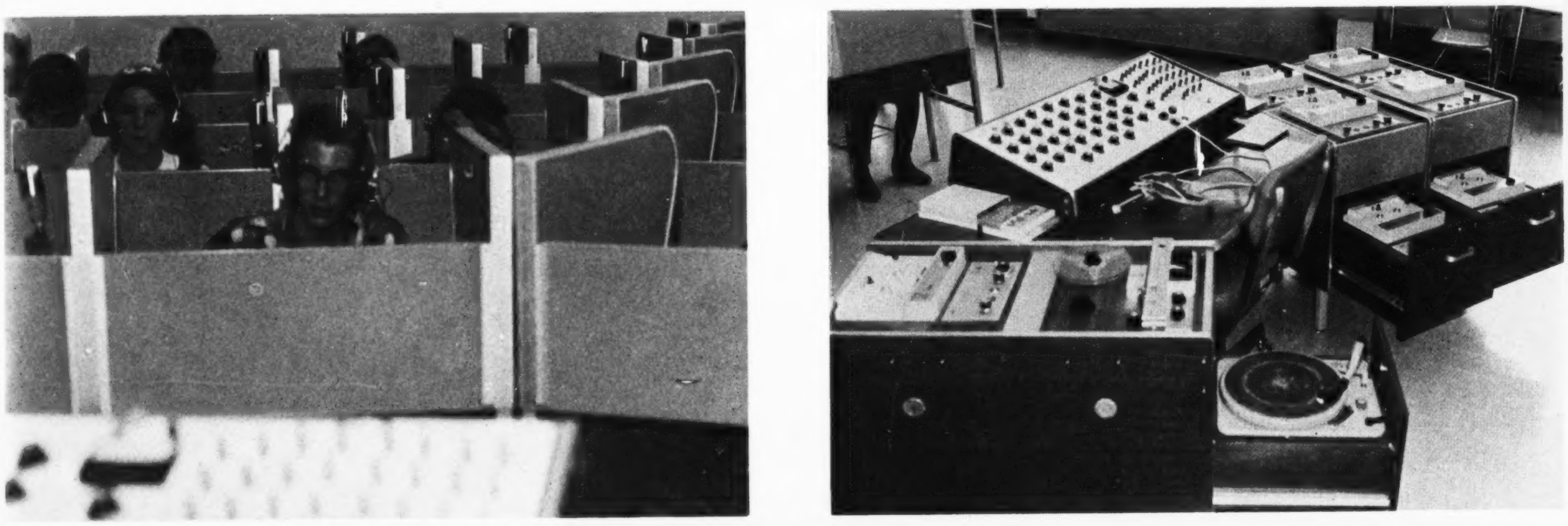
Relating sound and symbol

Since beginning writing is limited to utterances encountered in reading, the principles of graphemic fit learned in reading will transfer to writing. This will minimize the need for special attention to the problem of irregularities in sound-symbol relationships. Exceptions can then be taught as the need arises. For example, if the word *tough* is needed, teach that the English phoneme /*f*/ can be represented by /*gh*/, but avoid reciting a long list of rules and their exceptions.

If the graphic symbols of the language do not represent a major hurdle for the student, the systematic development of the writing skill can begin with imitative writing to develop the connection between sound and symbol.

Imitative writing

If a workbook does not accompany the text used, the student should be instructed to copy accurately the dialogue and pattern drills already mastered orally and visually. The student should copy one utterance at a time and then check it against the model to insure correctness. The material to be copied should be arranged in a variety of interesting ways to avoid monotony. The copying of a favorite song, riddle, rhyme, or proverb will afford some variety.



The language lab in Chehalis was specially designed to permit visual contact between teacher and each student. Note the V shaped partitions in the center of each row (left). In most language labs the teacher can only see the students in the row directly before him. On the right is the teacher's console, on an elevated platform.

—Office of Public Instruction

Dictation

Frequent dictation of familiar material also helps to establish the connection between sound and letter.

A transition from copying to dictation is "fill-in" dictation, in which the teacher reads a complete sentence which the student sees on his paper, except for one or two missing words. The student listens to the complete sentence, then writes the missing words in the proper spaces. The words are then listed on the board and the student corrects any errors.

Dictations should be short and should follow a definite system. A capable student can be asked to write the dictation on a blackboard at the back of the classroom. The teacher reads the complete story at normal speed while students listen. The story is then read a second time in thought groups with pauses long enough for students to write. Punctuation is given in the foreign language.

The complete story is read again at normal speed; the students are then given enough time to proofread. The class checks the dictation on the board, suggests corrections, exchanges papers and uses the model on the board to correct the neighbor's paper. The lesson may be concluded with special drill on difficult points.

Modeled writing

After the student has mastered the basic sound-symbol relationship through copying and dictation, he proceeds to limited and guided response exercises. He may (a) write a short completion to statements using memorized material; (b) give a written response to oral and written questions containing the vocabulary and structure needed for formulating the reply; (c) write answers to reading comprehension questions.

All exercises are designed in such a way that the responses required are those already mastered in oral work and reading.

Controlled writing

At the intermediate level the student may have sufficient command of basic structure to advance to controlled writing. He may (a) write a sentence making changes such as those pertaining to person and tense, (b) write what he would ask or answer in a given situation (directed dialogue), (c) write a story in dialogue form, (d) write a simple letter based on material read and (e) write a summary of a narrative after first doing it orally and then working with clues, phrases and an outline supplied by the teacher.

The writing of a good paragraph is possible at advanced levels when understanding and speaking have been extended to longer sequences. The student still needs models and controls to insure correct usage. Later types of writing include résumé and précis writing. Even at this point reduction of controls is so gradual that the student is not forced to invent language.

A long sequence of learning is required to develop free composition and much damage is done by attempting too early a start. Progress must be guided step by step and controls relaxed gradually so that mistakes do not occur.

Culture and contemporary society

Culture

Culture had been defined as "the total belief and bahavior pattern of a language community."[3] It must not be considered as limited to the arts and humanities. In any language community, the habits, manners, values, ideas and common objects comprise what can generally be considered the society's culture.

Language, a basic element of any culture, is the principal means through which the culture can be transmitted. Language is the carrier and recorder of the culture and its most important element. So closely interwoven are the two that many expressions cannot be understood except in their cultural context. Indeed, of all the aspects of culture, language is at once the most readily definable and teachable in structural terms, and the most accurate mirror of the extent to which the speaker feels at home in the culture as a whole.

In addition to the spoken and written forms, culturally important parts of language are its physical and visual aspects, paralanguage and kinesics. Paralanguage includes the vocal qualifiers conveyed by the voice, but not through words, such as pitch, tone, intonation, etc. Included in kinesics are the non-vocal body movements that play a part in communication, such as hand gestures, raised eyebrows, shoulder shrugs, pursed lips, a change in stance or the way in which people look at each other when speaking.

Humor also varies in different cultures, and the patterns of jokes, irony and whimsy are often confusing to a foreigner. Sensitivity to these differences is necessary not only for understanding the spoken language but also for appreciation of the literature.

A better understanding of cultural patterning in general is becoming available to the language teacher as a result of anthropological, sociological and psychological research.[4] The absorption of these cultural patterns and overtones along with acquisition of linguistic skill must be so integrated that the learning results not in a series of memorized facts but in a true understanding of the total cultural pattern. The student of either a classical or a modern language cannot be at ease in using the language unless he "feels at home in the culture."

Raising the maypole on Midsummer Eve (about June 24), a widespread custom. These poles in olden times were believed to bring good luck.
—Scandinavian Travel Commission

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[3] Nelson, Brooks. *Language and Language Learning.* Page 268.

[4] Robert Lado. *Linguistics Across Cultures.* Chapter 6, for a more detailed analysis of cultural patterning.

Skiing—a contemporary international sport, as popular in the Alps as in the Cascades.
—Swiss National Tourist Office

Contemporary society

Although culture and society may seem synonymous, there is a difference. While *culture* designates all the ideals and the total behavior of a people, *society* refers to a people as bound together by a social and political order. Let us consider some examples. Some modern countries have the same cultural roots while their present day societies differ.

The cultures of ancient Greece and Rome have persisted as a living force in Western civilization and their languages are still valued as conveyers of their traditions, yet their societies no longer exist. On the other hand, the United States has the same society but varying cultures which are reflected in regional dialects and vocabularies and in differing behavior patterns.

In the study of a foreign language, familiarity with the established relationships among the people and with the present day economic and political patterns is essential to well-rounded understanding. Current publications are the most valuable aid to an understanding of the contemporary scene.

The purpose of culture and society in language study

The sympathetic understanding of a foreign culture leads to acceptance of differences and cushions the cultural shock which often occurs when an individual first comes in actual contact with an entirely new way of life. In other words, the student should overcome his readiness to be irritated by the new and strange.

Understanding of another culture leads to personal enlightenment that will last long after the completion of formal language study. The student not only learns to respect the values and customs of other countries as being as valid as his own, but he also develops a more objective understanding of his own culture and a realization of the interrelationship of cultures, the contribution of other cultures, both classical and modern, to his own, and of his culture to others.

When accepting and respecting differences between cultures, the student develops an awareness of the universal quality of human problems and the basic oneness of the human race.

Teaching culture and society

As with the four basic skills, understanding of the anthropological, sociological and psychological research in the areas of culture is part of the teacher's personal equipment. It is not taught directly to the students but furnishes the basis for the selection of cultural materials and methods of presentation. Presentations may differ in classical and modern languages. Whether he is aware of it or not, every foreign language teacher does teach culture negatively or positively through his own personal attitude and through his selection of materials.

The more direct the contact the student has with the culture, the more meaningful it will be to him. Any teacher should continually avail himself of all possible means of learning more of the foreign language and culture through study, travel and contact with native speakers. The teacher who has had the experience of living in the foreign country is better equipped to transmit the culture.

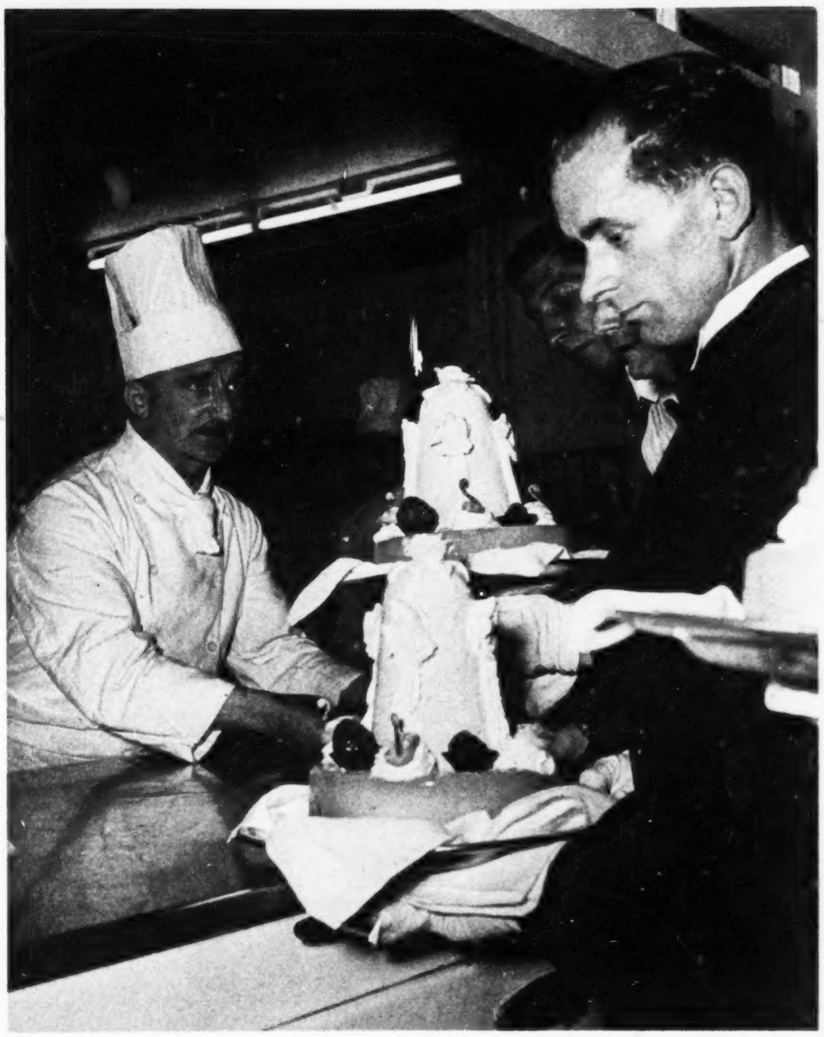
The classroom itself should be a "cultural island" where the teacher creates and maintains the atmosphere of the foreign culture with all the audio-visual materials which can assist in immersing the student in the new culture. These materials should be authentic and should predominantly represent contemporary features of the culture rather than historical aspects. Possible materials include music, films, slides, filmstrips, pictures, maps, newspapers, magazines and models.

Because language and culture are inseparable, the two should be integrated through cultural materials presented in the foreign language. At first there may be times when it is necessary to give some explanation or description in English. Because the student's control of the new language in the early stages is obviously limited, the teacher clarifies specific cultural items and patterns as they occur in learning the basic structures of the language. As comprehension increases, the use of the foreign language in teaching the culture also increases.

The method of presentation will depend on the age and interests of the students. In the elementary grades the emphasis is naturally placed on the living language at the age level of the children learning it. At first they will learn the names of the objects and simple phrases, play typical games and sing songs. Later they may use puppets to dramatize scenes from their reading.

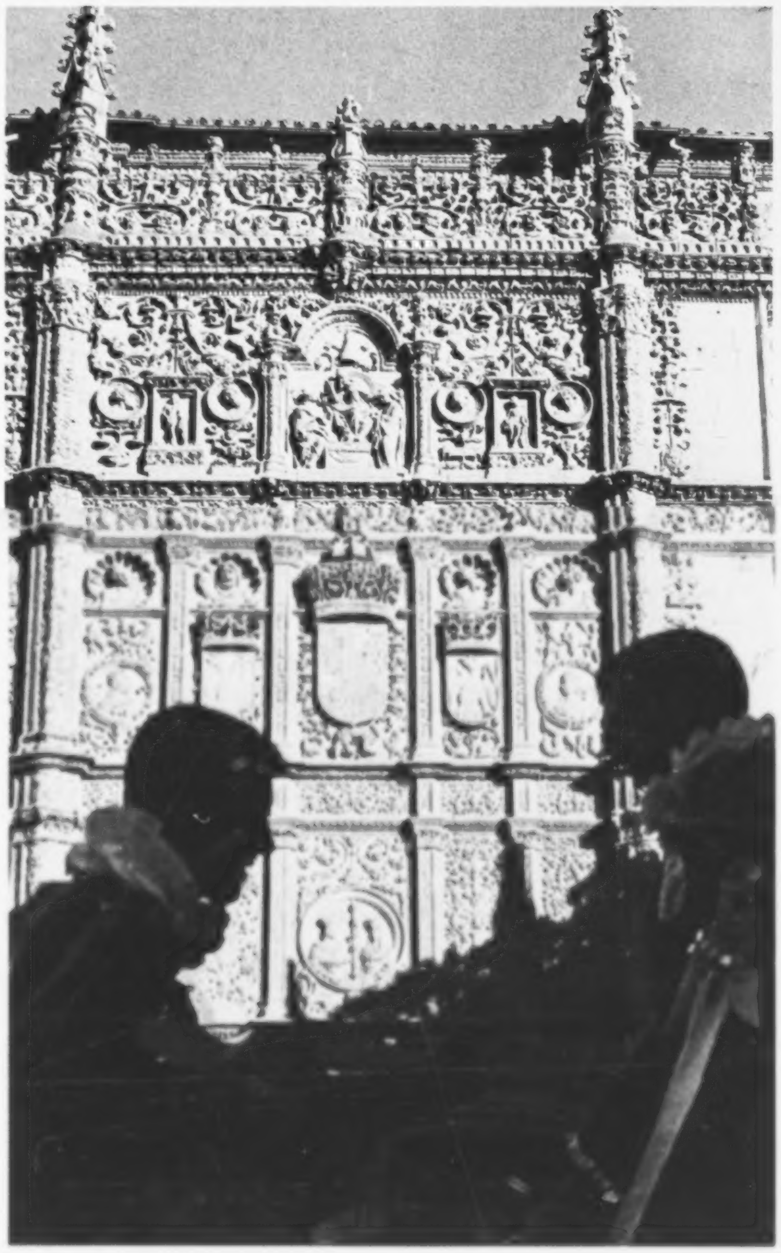
Through the building and furnishing of a doll's house, they can learn the names of household objects, kinship terms and phrases having to do with daily life. Holidays of the country may also be celebrated. However, in all these activities care must be taken that all materials and situations are authentic and typical of the culture. As in all foreign language learning, vocabulary is in sentences rather than in lists of words.

Later there can be more specific and formal teaching of the culture. Dramatizations, role-playing, group work, singing, pen pals and tape pals help students to gain more direct experience in the foreign culture. The limitless aids available to assist the teacher include pictures, films, books on art and architecture, reproductions of paintings, costumes, plays, sports and games, radio, television, current magazines, and newspapers. In selecting these situations and materials, the teacher must guard against over-emphasizing romantic aspects.



Top—Culture and customs differ around the world. A chef presents his ice cream masterpiece in European city famous for its elegant desserts.
—Swiss National Tourist Office

Bottom—In San Salvador, the market place teems with women buying and selling to feed their families the necessities.
—El Salvador Consulate



The ancient Spanish facade of the University of Salamanca is one of the countless works of art which decorate European towns and cities. Throughout Europe, the history and craftsmanship of many ages is represented by ornate facades, sculptures and other spectacular stonework.

—Paul Rickenback

This is a list of some cultural items with which a student should be familiar. Most of them apply to both classical and modern languages, but some obviously are limited to the modern.

1. Every day social amenities.
2. Family relationships and ways of expressing kinship.
3. Folklore, fables, and myths.
4. Discipline.
5. Festivals and holidays.
5. Games.
7. Music.
8. Friends and friendship.
9. Radio, TV, and films.
10. Hobbies.
11. Attitude toward school.
12. Travel and recreation.
13. Rural life vs. urban life.
14. Heroes.
15. Humor.
16. Customs of courtship.
17. Careers.

Although there are some aspects that can be explained and grasped through English, others are virtually inseparable from the language itself and should be taught only in the native language. These aspects which cannot be "learned about" include the value system, motives, ethics, responses to behavior in everyday situations, social institutions and traditions.

Paralanguage and kinesics, referred to earlier, are outstanding examples of linguistic and cultural fusion. Variations in voice have different significance in different cultures as do motions of the head, eyes, or hand. In our culture a giggle usually signifies amusement; in others it means embarrassment and apology. In some countries the hand gesture may be mistaken. Even the acceptable physical distance between speakers varies in different countries.

Always the teacher is the basic representative of the foreign culture and establishes and maintains the atmosphere of the country in the decor of the classroom. Displays and materials should be in good taste, reflect high quality, whenever possible support the topic under discussion and be arranged in an artistically pleasing manner.

—Photo ENIT Roma

The native consultant

Native speakers residing in the community are often helpful sources of information for the teacher. A well-educated native speaker who can adjust his vocabulary to the level of the students and who enjoys working with young people may be willing to show slides from his country and answer questions at a meeting of the foreign language club. A list of questions prepared in advance by the students will help the teacher plan with the class for the meeting and will give the guest speaker an opportunity to select and prepare his materials, for even a native speaker of the language is not always a language expert, nor is he automatically an authority on his own culture.

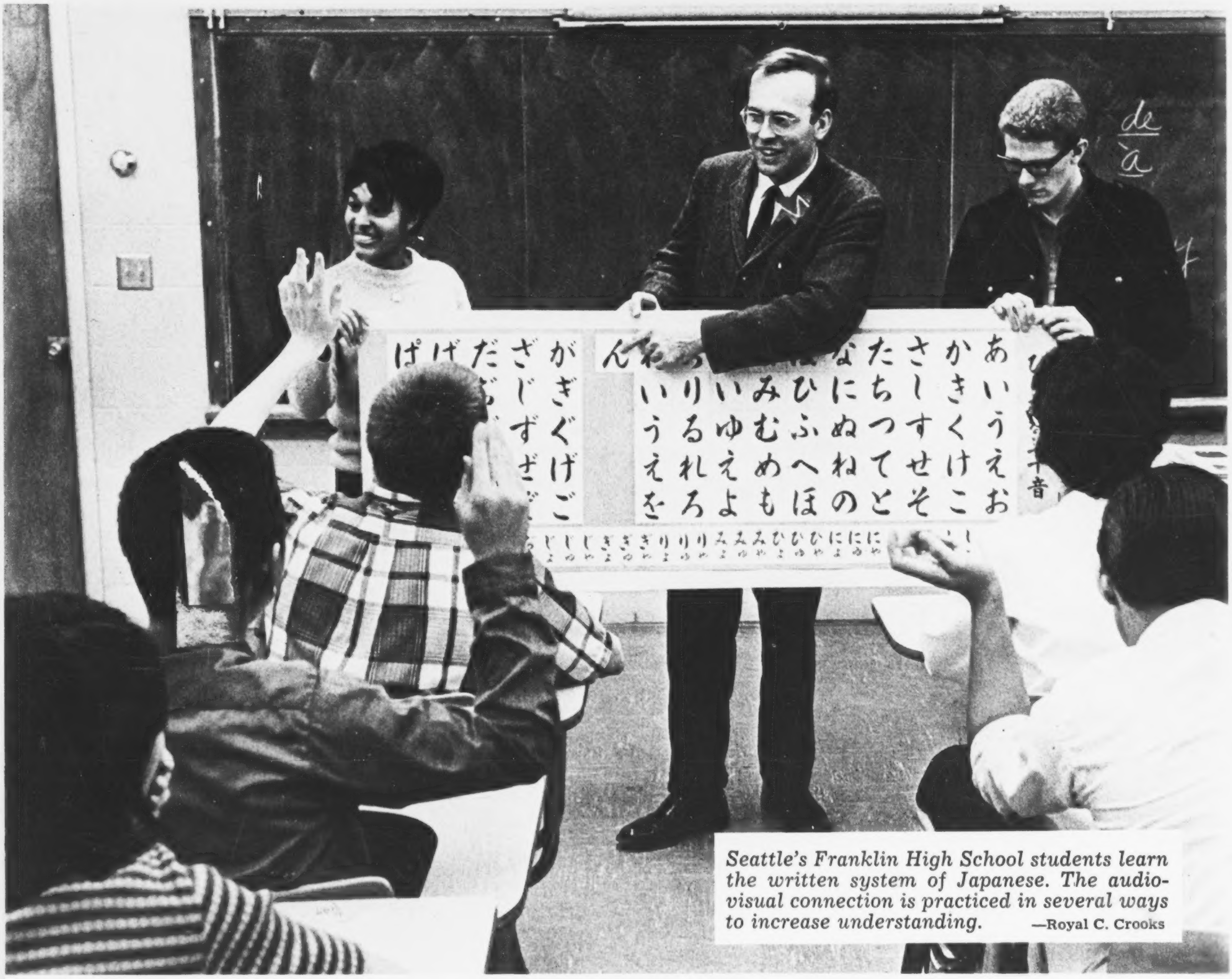
Literature and cultural concepts

Literature is a force that molds society as well as a record of the culture. Until the student is well-advanced in his understanding of both the language and culture of the country in question, only those literary masterpieces that are linguistically appropriate and have special student interest should be studied. Too often selections are offered long before the student is ready.

Contemporary writing is usually the best introduction to the literature of a modern language because of its greater immediacy and interest as well as its modern conversational vocabulary. Anecdotes and short stories are the best beginning material, with poetry, plays, and longer prose selections coming later. In the classical languages, student interest should be an important factor in choosing selections. In general the use of simplified versions of literary masterpieces is to be avoided unless the simplification is of high literary quality.

Literary works which are selected for study can be the basis for oral discussion and should lead to the appreciation of literary form as well as to an increase in cultural insight. Some understanding of the author and his period will be helpful, and the selection should be placed in its modern or historical setting.

In Latin, literature is introduced earlier than in modern languages since development of reading facility is an earlier objective in Latin study. Latin literature continues to have permanent relevance because of its social and political orientation and its importance as a basis for the literature of our Western civilization.



Seattle's Franklin High School students learn the written system of Japanese. The audio-visual connection is practiced in several ways to increase understanding. —Royal C. Crooks

Conclusion

Although these skills and cultural concepts have been discussed separately, they are part of a closely integrated whole and must be presented as such. Only thus can the student achieve true cross-cultural communication.

The language teacher may feel overwhelmed by the task of attaining all these objectives. However, he should be reassured by the fact that they represent ideal goals for which he would aim without becoming discouraged if his grasp does not equal his reach.

Chapter 4

Evaluation

Evaluation should be used to keep an accurate tabulation of the student's progress in listening comprehension, speaking, reading and writing for a total picture of what he has accomplished. One method of measuring progress is oral testing.
—Tacoma Public Schools

Purposes

Evaluation should be an integral and continual process in the teaching of foreign language, aimed at motivating the student and helping him to realize his progress as well as furnishing a tool through which the teacher can measure the effectiveness of his teaching procedures. A good testing program based on the learning sequence is a reinforcement of learning.

For teacher and student self-appraisal, both group and individual testing are necessary. The aim of this testing for the student is to advance the learning process by showing him what he knows, what he should know, and what is expected of him. It should assist him in directing his study and improving his performance.

For the teacher, tests provide an evaluation of his teaching and the effectiveness of various methods of instruction through consideration of outcomes based on considerable samplings. If there is a large percentage of poor results, it might indicate that the instruction has not been effective or that the test was poorly constructed.

Group testing can further show what has not been learned sufficiently, what needs to be retaught and what direction future instruction should take. Individual testing, which may be frequent and informal, points up student weaknesses and uneven progress, helping the teacher to guide each student's learning activities more efficiently.

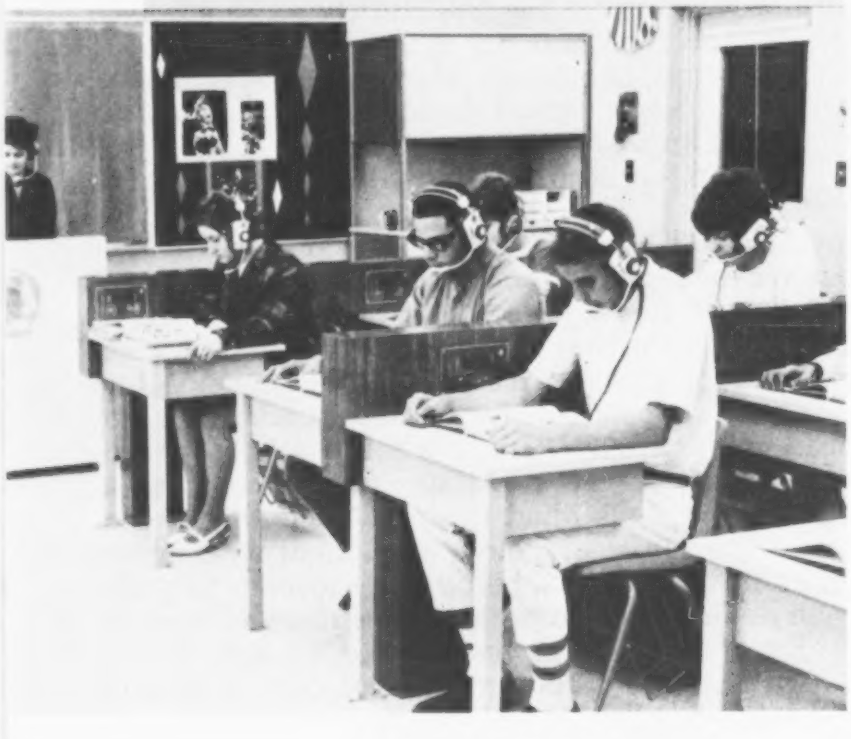
By frequent oral testing the teacher knows which points of pronunciation or oral control of structure need to be emphasized, eliminating extensive drill on material which is well-handled by the majority of students and giving more time for other needed practice.

Evaluation should be used to keep an accurate tabulation of the student's progress in all four skills: *listening comprehension, speaking, reading* and *writing,* thus giving a total picture of what he has accomplished. This necessitates a variety of tests relating to different skills or components of the same skill. These tests, especially the frequent, informal type, provide a strong motivation, improve student alertness, give immediate correction, reinforce correct patterns and make immediate use of what the student has just learned.

The cumulative results of short, frequent tests over a period of time provide a more reliable indication of the student's progress, particularly in aural and speaking activities, than do infrequent long tests.

Testing can serve diagnostic, prognostic and developmental purposes in addition to measuring achievement. It can assist in grouping of students to make instruction more efficient, or it can be helpful as a placement device for students entering from other schools.

Listening comprehension should be a vital part of learning and testing at all times, but in the initial stages of learning it should be one of the main goals of any program.



General principles of test construction and administration

At the present time, there are tests which correlate with teaching materials and test all four skills. These are valuable for individual student evaluation as well as for comparison of any one teacher's students with others using the same materials. *However, if such tests are not available, or if additional testing is desirable, the following points should be considered in constructing and giving tests:*

> Any testing must be based on what the teacher has taught and the method he has used to teach it. For this reason, the teacher must have clearly in mind the skill being tested and the purpose the test serves. In composing the test, an attempt should be made to correlate the weight of various items with the emphasis given them in class instruction. In the first stages of learning a language, where the emphasis is on listening comprehension and speaking, the test should evaluate these skills and not be based upon reading and writing competency. As these two latter skills are introduced, they are included in the testing program but should never replace listening and speaking tests, since learning must integrate all four skills. The kind of test will vary with the stage of development of the student.

Tests may be given as a checking device immediately after presentation and drill on a new item, or as a unit test, or as a comprehensive quarter or semester examination. In all cases they should have a definite learning purpose and should not be given as disciplinary devices, as administrative routines, or because it is Friday. It is unfair to the student to use a single test as the whole basis for his grade throughout a grading period, since all skills and knowledge cannot be measured at one time in one test.

A good test is constructed in such form as to include as few complications as possible, so that points of failure can be identified and treated. It should cover one thing at a time as far as is feasible. When several skills or knowledges are tested in one test they should be separately evaluated. From time to time, the testing of these skills should include reintroduced material as well as the material which has just been learned. Students should know that this will be a part of evaluation, and that they will be expected to keep in mind the material already learned.

Pupils should understand and experience different types of test procedures before being tested. These should include many of the procedures used in class instruction. The student should know in advance precisely what is to be tested. The instructions for the test should be very clear. If the directions are in the foreign language, it is advisable to give a model of the procedure. All the items from which a correct answer is to be chosen should be correct as to spelling, structure, and idiom. The test should not include "trick" questions.

As much as possible, tests should be in the target language, calling for responses in that language. In the early stages of language learning when the student's skills are limited, the teacher must make a special effort to construct tests to which the student can respond in the target language. In testing for cultural background and knowledge of the countries studied, the context should be situational or linguistic.

Translation should not be used to test comprehension. It is an advanced skill, and tests in this area should be used only in advanced classes to measure ability to translate material of various types into good English style. This material may be of general nature or more specialized, such as literary, legal, technical or social. It should be introduced in progressive order of difficulty, starting with relatively simple material and going on to the more complex. Translation tests are not appropriate for most high school classes.

Tests should be discussed as soon as possible after administration to assist in correcting errors. In this way they serve as reinforcement of the correct test response.

Listening comprehension

Listening comprehension is a receptive skill—like reading. It is also a primary skill—like speaking.

It should be a vital part of the learning and testing program at all times, but in the initial stages of learning it should be one of the main goals of any program.

Since reading and writing are based upon what the student can understand and say, it follows that these latter two should be the first skills developed in learning a foreign language. Thus the testing of listening becomes important in the total evaluation program.

The testing should be based upon what the student has already experienced in a learning situation, but since the time for testing is much shorter than that available for learning, the test can be only a sampling of the material learned. Thus, it is vital that the teacher understand what he is trying to test and that the test be based upon the points of conflict between the target language and the native language. It is through determining these points of conflict and resolving them that a program of testing can be developed in the most efficient manner.

The two areas to be tested in this skill are (a) sound comprehension or discrimination and (b) comprehension of meaning, which involves understanding of vocabulary, grammatical structure, and differences in stress and intonation.

In the beginning stages of language learning, tests should seek to measure listening comprehension apart from the other language skills. After a background of reading and writing has been acquired, the student may be tested in ways that involve these two skills as well as listening comprehension.

In either case, the problems to be tested should be listed first, then words and utterances chosen that contain each problem in minimal

Morning rush hour traffic includes swarms of bicycles in many countries.

—Z. Lichtenberg

pairs. Care must be taken that the selections are not too long, that they do not require special knowledge, that they are familiar to all the students and that they do not pose multiple problems.

To test solely sound discrimination, choices may be made of unfamiliar words which contain phonemic problems already presented and practiced. When this is done, students should be told that they will hear new material and that the test is to determine if they have heard sounds correctly.

The utterances for aural testing should be read at a normal rate of speed with native or near-native pronunciation. This approximates hearing someone on the telephone, on radio, television, or in a movie—all normal hearing situations.

When accurate oral control of the sound system has been achieved, sound discrimination may be tested by some of the following means:

- Isolate words or utterances containing important phonemic differences. In English, these might be: chose, shows; leap, lip; bat, pat. Read a group of these minimal pairs, interspersed with the same word read twice. The student will write *S* (same) or *D* (different) for each pair of words.

- Indicate the sound the students are to listen for; read a list of ten words, some containing the sound and some not, and have them indicate by number which words contain the specific sound.

- Read a given model, then read a pair of words or sentences, one of which is the same as, and the other different from the model. Student will write the number of the one that is the same as the model.

- Use pairs of numbered pictures of objects whose names contain phonemic differences. Read the name of one object at a time and have the student write the number of the picture which he thinks corresponds to the name. For example, the pair of pictures might be robe: rope. At first, the single words could be used; later the words could be used in simple sentences; still later more complex sentences could be used as student vocabulary increases.

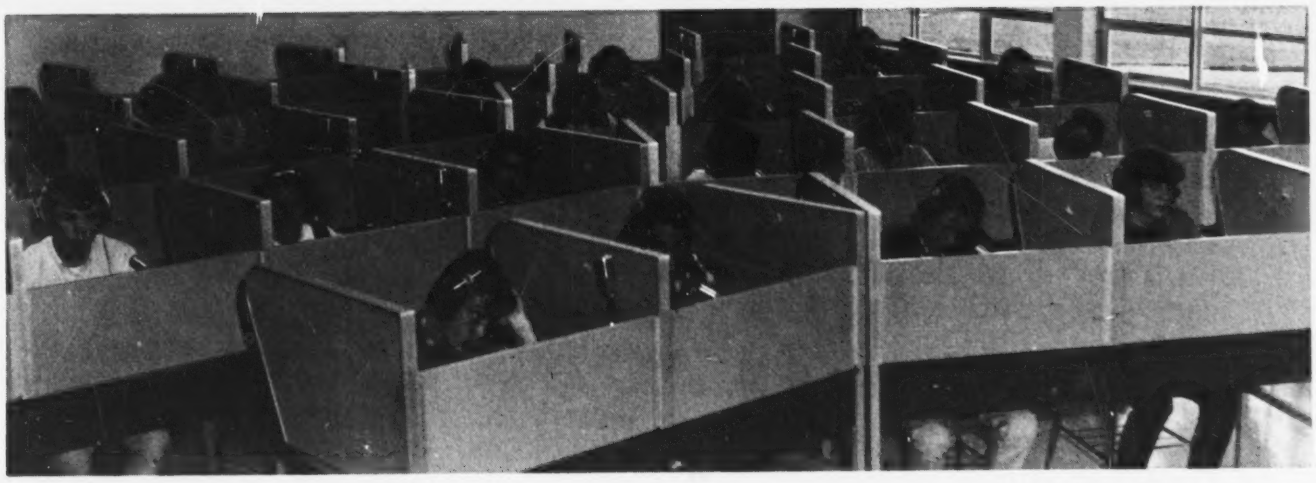
- As listening skill and language background develop, choices may be increased to three or four instead of the minimal pair, and sentences used instead of words. However, care must be taken to make sure that all choices contain the sound problem.

- As reading and writing skills are learned, some of the above methods may be used with the addition of written choices. The student is asked to choose the words or sentences he has heard from those listed on the test paper. Group testing in this fashion is easy to administer and correct, making possible more frequent testing.

- Dictation is often used as a test of listening comprehension. But it adds to the testing of sound discrimination other factors such as structure and orthography. Since it presents multiple problems, dictation, if used for testing, should be chosen for particular sounds and should be graded on the basis of recognition of these sounds. This kind of testing is more valid for testing of writing, and certainly should not be given at beginning levels.

- The language laboratory can be used effectively in individual testing after sufficient speaking skill has been attained by the students. Many of the techniques used in group evaluation can be employed in the lab, such as use of minimal pairs, multiple choice, and completion of sentences by choice of a correct word.

To test comprehension of meaning, not just recognition of sounds, several procedures are helpful. Comprehension involves understanding of structural patterns, vocabulary, juncture, intonation and stress. Therefore, items should be included to test these different problems included in the learning of language. At first, this should be done in ways that do not depend upon reading or writing. Later, when these skills are learned, they may be utilized in the tests, but separate components should be evaluated separately.



This electronic classroom in Chehalis can economically provide individualized, guided listening-speaking practice for a large group.
—Office of Public Instruction

As in the case of testing sound discrimination, choice of structural patterns should be made from models already learned which have emphasized the formula upon which the patterns are built. Control in speaking should come before the aural testing of structure. As the student advances and patterns become more complicated, testing first based on learned patterns may change to that based on new material to see if there is carry-over of understanding.

The following suggested procedures may help to test understanding:

Action-response. The teacher gives a command and the student does what he has been asked to do. This involves individual testing and is rather time-consuming, but it does test for immediate comprehension.

Picture choice. A statement is read explaining a certain situation or action, and the student chooses by number the picture that corresponds. At first the pictures should be very simple, increasing in background detail with the student's progress. This is especially valuable to test comprehension in the early stages of language learning.

True-false. The teacher reads a set of statements and the student marks each one true or false on the basis of the sentences he has learned. Initially including the patterns as he has learned them, these may gradually increase in complexity, using substitutions and new structures as they are learned.

Multiple choice. This may be a choice of answers to questions, at first a choice of two and later an original one from the student involving writing. In this case, the comprehension should be evaluated separately.

Sentence completion. Several choices of completions are read, and the student marks his choice. When he reads well the choice may be written.

There are undoubtedly many other ways of testing which are valid and test listening comprehension primarily. For instance, word order often changes the meaning of an utterance. Stress, juncture and intonation affect meaning and can be tested. Comprehension, then is made up of a number of component parts; a good testing program should recognize this.

Speaking

Speaking is a primary skill—like listening comprehension. It is also an active skill—like writing.

Because the modern foreign language curriculum now places emphasis on teaching the student to speak the target language, it is necessary that the testing program include oral production tests. Students of modern foreign languages need to realize that an important part of the evaluation of language skills is the testing of speaking.

Too often teachers, in giving regularly scheduled examinations, place emphasis on the written test, and students may consider that speaking is not an important part of evaluation. It is often too easy for the formal or regularly scheduled tests to be solely devoted to testing the reading and writing skills.

It is recognized that the testing of speaking is difficult and does present some problems. Because of subjective analysis of scores, testing of speaking is often not reliable. The correction of speaking tests is time consuming.

Establishing criteria prior to testing will aid in making the scoring of tests more objective. The evaluation of student responses can be recorded on scoring charts with a scale indicated for the evaluation. These scales may consist of right and wrong for pronunciation items and three to five shades (grades) for other aspects.

The tape recording of responses for later evaluation can also be a help in developing more objectivity. When only one aspect of a speech pattern is being analyzed at a time, there is additional reliability.

A language laboratory facilitates the testing of speaking skills. Even a single tape recorder in the classroom can be an aid in the process of testing.

To test pronunciation, rhythm, stress and intonation, the echo or mimicry test may be used. In this test the student is instructed to repeat whatever the model voice (teacher or tape) says. Only one of the specific characteristics of speech should be measured in any one utterance. As the student repeats the first phrase or sentence the teacher listens for pronunciation of a certain vowel or consonant sound; in another utterance he evaluates rhythm, in another intonation, etc.

Oral communication involves comprehension of and response to both oral and non-verbal stimuli. Pupil response should be evaluated in terms of promptness, fluency, control of structure and appropriateness of vocabulary. Each of these should be evaluated separately for each response.

Testing in class should be planned to imitate actual conversation. Could the student walk up to these passers-by in France, ask directions and understand the answers?

—Z. Lichtenberg

Types of tests

There are different types of tests by which these aspects of oral communication can be measured.

- **Answering questions or making rejoinders.** The utterance by the teacher or a taped voice should be familiar to the student, thus minimizing the possibility of poor performance in the speaking skills caused by poor comprehension.

- **Pattern drills.** These are especially useful for testing control of structure and fluency of speech.

- **Directed speaking.** The student is directed to make a statement, to ask a question or to relay a message to another person.

- **Oral response to pictures.** This must be planned very carefully in order to elicit only the structures and vocabulary the students should have mastered.

- **Oral sentence construction.** At some point after reading has been introduced, control of structure can be tested by giving the student the basic words from which he is to construct a sentence. These words in correct order and using the infinitive form of the verb, with a model sentence, can be presented on the blackboard, the overhead projector, or a dittoed paper. Of course, this technique, as the others, should be used as a class exercise before being introduced for testing.

- **Oral composition.** This type of test is suitable for intermediate and advanced levels. Talks should be short and students should be allowed some time for preparation.

Since the techniques suggested here are also those used in teaching the speaking skills, they have the advantage of being familiar to the students.

Examples of types of tests

MIMICRY:

Pronunciation — *"eu"* and *"ieu"*

1. *Je veux deux pneus, monsieur.*
2. *Le vieux monsieur veut deux oeufs.*

Pronunciation — *"ou"*

1. *Où allez-vous, Louise?*
2. *Nous jouons avec Pitou.*

Intonation

1. *Où va Jean?*
2. *Paul va à la bibliothèque?*

Rhythm

1. *La bibliothèque est en face de l'église.*
2. *Nous demandons des oranges à Robert.*

ANSWERING QUESTIONS OR MAKING REJOINDERS:

Teacher: *Tu fais du français?*
Student: *Oui, je fais du français.*

Teacher: *Si on allait au cinéma?*
Student: *Chic alors!*

Teacher: *Je n'aime pas les oranges.*
Student: *Moi non plus.*

(Note: Where several different answers are possible, any structurally correct and appropriate answer should be accepted.)

PATTERN DRILLS:

Control of a verb — simple substitution

Je vais à la gare.
Nous ....
Tu ....
Jean et Marie ....
Vous ....
Les garçons ....

Control of direct object pronoun — transformation

Teacher: *Je regarde la photo.*
Student: *Je la regarde.*
Teacher: *Nous écoutons le professeur.*
Student: *Nous l'écoutons.*

Fluency of speech — simple substitution

Il regarde le livre.
———— *le crayon.*
———— *la photo.*

DIRECTED SPEAKING:

Teacher: *Dites que vous allez au cours de français.*

Student: *Je vais au cours de français.*

Teacher: *Demandez à Marie si elle a un frère.*

Student: *Marie, as-tu un frère?*

ORAL RESPONSE TO PICTURES:

Picture of a blonde girl talking to a boy.

Question (oral or printed, depending upon reading level of class):
Qui parle à Paul?

Student response:
Une jeune fille blonde (une blonde) parle à Paul.
(Later, the answer might be: *Une blonde lui parle.*)

Picture of two boys playing tennis.

Student response (with or without leading question by teacher):

a. *Paul et Robert (Ils) jouent au tennis.*
b. *Paul et Robert (Ils) aiment jouer au tennis.*
c. *Ils ne font pas de ski.*

ORAL SENTENCE CONSTRUCTION:

Model: *frère, regarder, tableau noir.*
Mon frère regarde le tableau noir.
a. *nous, écouter, radio.* (oral or written by teacher)
Student: *Nous écoutons la radio.*

Model: *vous, répondre, professeur.*
Vous avez répondu à votre professeur.
a. *nous, parler, oncle.*
Nous avons parlé à notre oncle.

ORAL COMPOSITION:

An outline can be given in the target language, since this type of testing is not used at beginning level.

Example of outline:
Dites ce que vous avez fait hier: à quelle heure vous avez pris le petit déjeuner, où vous êtes allé, qui vous avez vu, ce que vous avez fait pour vous amuser l'après-midi, le soir.

'Où va Jean?" "Paul va á la bibliothèque?"

—Z. Lichtenberg

Reading

The testing procedures for evaluating reading, as well as the particular sequence for introducing and emphasizing the different components of reading skill, follow directly from a clear understanding of what reading actually is, and how it is related to the other language skills in a modern foreign language course. In years past it was customary to think of testing in terms of specific grammar areas or vocabulary content almost to the exclusion of the specific language *skill* involved.

Testing was aimed more at determining whether grammar concepts were understood, or exceptions memorized, than at measuring skill in application. The tacit assumption that skill in any one area was automatically transferred to the others often blinded us to what our students could—or could not—actually do.

Having taught a reading skill, we tested the student's ability to write. Having taught speech, we expected him to be able to read. It is no wonder that only an intellectual elite was able to survive our courses.

Most of the modern teaching materials are accompanied by excellent testing materials designed to evaluate progress in the skills individually. These commercial tests evaluate reading at an appropriate time, and measure the component skills in logical sequence. However, they bear little resemblance to those provided with the older materials, and it is possible to appreciate what they can do and to get the most from them only by taking a new look at what they measure.

The reading skill that is to be measured has two characteristics that will determine how it can be tested: it is a *passive* activity, and it is a *derived* or *secondary* skill. The importance of its passive nature is that it cannot be tested *directly*. In reading, the student is receiving something, not producing something, as in writing or speaking. When writing or speaking, the student *must* expose his skill, whether or not he wishes to.

In listening or reading, he may remain mute and keep us in total ignorance of what he knows—a source of chagrin to many parents and policemen as well as to language teachers. Since *direct* knowledge of the student's reading skill is clearly inaccessible to the teacher, instruments for obtaining precise knowledge *indirectly* must be developed with great care and evaluated with understanding.

The simplest possible reading test might consist of the teacher's entering the room and writing on the board in the target language, "John, stand up and walk quietly to the door." The teacher might be justified in assuming that if John walks silently to the door, he can read what was written. If he goes to the window, it may be assumed that he has comprehended only a certain part of the written message. Likewise if he fails to remain quiet while walking. If he remains in his seat, it may mean that he has understood only the first part of the command, or that he is thinking about last night's date. Or, it could mean that for, "John, stand . . ." he has understood the equivalent of, "John stood . . ." And at the best, we have not determined the speed or ease with which John has read, or whether he has employed the most efficient reading techniques.

The famous Champs Elysees on a typical spring morning. "Où allez-vouz aujourd'hui!"

—Z. Lichtenberg

Has he preformed *reading*, or has he cyphered out a puzzle? The best reading tests avoid most of these pitfalls, but the passive nature of reading makes it impossible to avoid them all. The evaluation of this skill will probably never be on as firm footing as the evaluating of the active skills of speaking and writing.

A second important factor to bear in mind in evaluating reading skill is that it is a *derived* or *secondary* skill. Many perfectly good languages have no written form at all: historically the writing (and reading) is "built on" the spoken form. Writing and reading could be considered speaking and listening by proxy—or "once removed." There is strong evidence that the writer or reader of a language makes constant unconscious reference to the *primary* or spoken form.

While reading silently, the third grader may move his lips visibly; you and I involve our speech organs in such minute movements that special laboratory equipment is required to detect them. This is not to disparage the derived forms, which are in some ways more useful than the primary forms—in teachers' contracts, for example.

But it is on the basis of strong *primary* skills —listening and speaking—that strength in reading and writing can best be developed. While reading may and should be used—beginning in the second level of instruction—for reviewing known structures and extending vocabulary, it should be restricted initially to the representation "by proxy" of what has been securely mastered in listening and speaking.

The first items to be tested in reading will be the student's ability to relate the written symbols of the target language—which he doesn't yet know—to the basic sounds or phonemes of the target language—which he should have mastered in the pre-reading phase. The problem will vary significantly with the language being taught.

In the Western European languages, for instance, very little attention need be given to teaching the graphemes themselves, since they all represent only minor variations on the Roman alphabet of English. In Russian, however, much familiarization with the specific items of the Cyrillic alphabet will be necessary.

After the students have seen written sentences that are already a part of their oral repertoire, *the following devices may be useful in testing their ability to couple specific phonemes to specific letters or letter combinations*:

- Write or flash a single word on the board, then repeat a series of four or more short sentences, one of which contains the word. The students identify the sentence by number.

- Write or flash a sentence before the students, then pronounce a series of single words, one of which appears in the sentence or phrase. They identify the word by number.

EXAMPLES OF WORDS TO WRITE ON BOARD:

Wagen

(1) *Peter, wie heisst dein Freund?*
(2) *Peter, ist das dein neuer* **Wagen?**
(3) *Was sagen Marie und Else?*
(4) *Heute ist das Wetter schlecht!*

EXAMPLES OF WORDS IN SENTENCE:

J'ai **faim.**

(1) *aime*
(2) *garçon*
(3) **faim**
(4) *peine*

The word(s) presented visually would not be pronounced for the students, of course, but it should be either an entire utterance, or part of an utterance, that they already know orally.

Variations on this device may be valuable in testing *single* phoneme-grapheme correspondences. Instead of sentences or phrases, use a single word, from which only one phoneme is to be identified:

EXAMPLE:

Show **on** say

(1) *sans*
(2) **bon**
(3) *pain*
(4) *entre*

This sort of testing device can be used to great advantage at this point to **teach** problems of phonemic distribution that have often been handled traditionally as subjects for advanced training (especially in the case of French).

EXAMPLES:

dix

(1) *J'ai di**x** ans.*
(2) *Elle a di**x** livres.*
(3) *Il en a di**x**.*

g../..**g**

(1) *Guten Ta**g**.*
(2) ***G**ehen wir?*
(3) *Welchen We**g** sa**g**st du?*

r*ojo*
*pe***rr***o*
po**r**

(1) *El camino* **r***eal.*
(2) *¿***Por** *qué hablas tanto?*
(3) *Este ciga**rr**o es muy ca**r**o.*

The entire class of Sandhi variations can be taught in this manner without recourse to elaborate grammatical classification.

Much confusion can be avoided by testing these items as specific **reading** rather than as broader problems of pronunciation. Emphasis must be kept on making the proper relationship between the sound and symbol as a **means** to reading rather than on the teaching of abstract rules.

While opinion is not unanimous on this point, the present writers feel that testing correspondences between the writing and speaking systems of the target language should be limited as much as possible to the examples in the target language. While the student is sure to make comparisons to his native language, our purpose is not to teach him comparative linguistics, but to help him develop automatic responses within the systems of the target language. It is, in fact, exactly the transfer of English language habits that must be especially guarded against at the time when reading is introduced.

The techniques mentioned above can be especially helpful in measuring the student's progress in overcoming the conflicts between the writing system of his native language and the target language. And it is exactly on these conflicts that testing must focus at this point:

Present on the board or screen the word containing the conflict. Repeat four sentences or phrases already known to the students, one of which contains the key word. The phrase is identified by number, exactly as above.

EXAMPLES:

pain (1) *Qu' il fait beau!*
(2) *Je veux du* **pain**.
(3) *Il ne vaut pas la peine.*
(4) *Quelle heure est-il?*

gut (1) *Es tut mir Leid.*
(2) *Wieviel Uhr ist es?*
(3) *Er heisst Karl.*
(4) *Es geht mir* **gut**.

llama (1) *Se* **llama** *Pablo.*
(2) *¿Es un lobo?*
(3) *Aquí está mi papel.*
(4) *Los ojos son azules.*

A similar test may be given at a more sophisticated level by reading a sentence to the class, and having them choose the sentence they think they heard from a list of two or more:

EXAMPLE:

(1) **Il ne vaut pas la peine.**
(2) *Il ne veut pas le pain.*
(3) *Ils n'ont pas volé le train.*
(4) *Il fait beau en printemps.*

This sort of item has the advantage over the previous ones of providing an antidote for the tendency to fractionalize language. The new language teaching materials attempt to take into account the fact that language is meaningful only when taught in meaningful context. That is, Spaniards do not speak pronouns in declensions or verbs in conjugations. Many of the new materials teach reading from the outset a process of recognizing at normal spoken speed complete, already-learned utterances.

Further testing of both fluency and word-recognition within the first level of instruction should consist mainly of reading aloud material that has been scrupulously limited in both structure and vocabulary, but combined in a variety of new ways. Many of the new materials contain a variety of such selections, both in the form of dialogue and connected narration.

As the students give evidence of skill in recognizing and "sounding out" the basic phonemes of the written language, and as they gain fluency in reading whole utterances with good inflection and accent they should be given test materials that allow them to continue developing these skills while focusing on the identification and solution of more subtle, but less frequent, problems.

These could be such problems as homonyms, words with similar phonetic features, or structural problems such as agreement, number, tense of verb, *etc.*

Test items will require correct choices between possible variations of the utterance, some depending on a vocabulary item, some on minimal structural features.

EXAMPLES:

1. **The class is shown a picture of a boy drinking milk.**
   a. They are to choose between several complete statements appearing on the test sheet:
      1. *Das Kalb trinkt Milch.*
      2. **Der Knabe trinkt Milch.**
      3. *Das Kind trinkt immer Kaffee zum Frühstück.*

   b. The same picture could be used, having the students choose between various words to complete the meaning of a statement:
      1. **Der Junge** *trinkt immer frische Milch zum Frühstück.*
      2. *Der alte trinkt frische milch.*
      3. *Die kinder trinken milch zum frühstück.*
2. Structural recognition may be more efficiently tested by presenting two or three situations in small pictures on the test sheet, each differing from the others in one minimal distinctive feature. The student matches the proper situation to the statement written or flashed on the screen by the teacher:

STATEMENT: *Wenn er länger wäre, so könnte er die Äpfel erreichen.*
Picture I: **Short man standing under tree full of apples.**
Picture II: *Tall man bending over looking at three about knee-high to him.*
Picture III: *Hungry child looking at picture of apple and drooling.*

This sort of test item requires discriminations of a rather high order, and doesn't necessarily interfere with habits of fluency. Essentially it re-

A Sunday afternoon in another land.
—Z. Lichtenberg

quires the student to evaluate one basic situation in reference to one linguistic item. It is static.

The basic type however, can be expanded to require discriminating recognition of sequential or progressive development in an idea or situation. It can be especially useful in evaluating the students' grasp of sequence of tenses, discrimination between various past tenses, selection of the proper subjective or conditional utterances to fit the sequence of actions.

This item involves showing the class a series of pictures or cartoons that tell a story. Generally at least three or four will be required.

Student responses can be of two types:

1. On the student's test paper is a series of numbered, out-of-sequence statements about the pictures. They can be rearranged according to only one logical sequence of events as represented by the cartoons. The student arranges the numbers according to the logical sense of the pictures.
2. The student's test paper contains a list of statements about the action depicted in the series of cartoons. The student indicates which statements do *not* belong to the sequence of events.

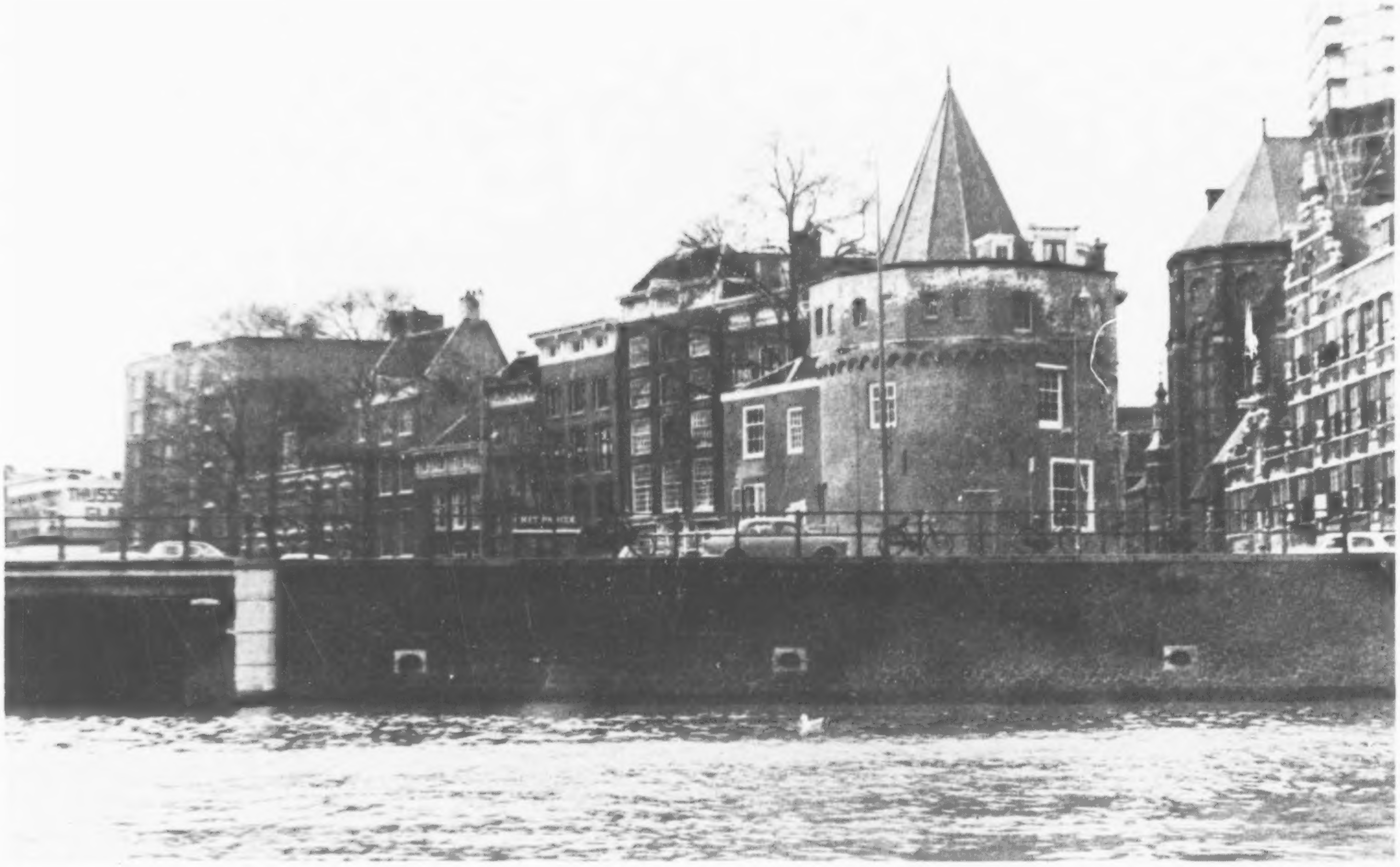
A useful test of the ability to skim rapidly for specific information consists of a paragraph with a short blank before each line. Following the paragraph are numbered questions of fact relating to it. The student indicates his ability to locate specific facts by placing the number of the appropriate question before the line containing the answer.

EXAMPLE:

___ *Im Mittelalter gab es einmal*
2 *in einem dunkeln Walde ein kleines*
3 *weisses Bauernhaus. Eine Familie*
1 *von drei Kindern bewohnte das*
___ *schöne Haus.*

1. *Wieviele Kinder bewohnten das Haus?*
2. *Wie war das Wald?*
3. *Was stand im Walde?*

Any test item of this sort should consist of a sizeable amount of material—a minimum of 15 or 20 lines. The vocabulary items should be within the grasp of all students. The test should be timed. This is best suited to testing the ability to scan rapidly. Failure to include adequate material or to limit the time renders it undiscriminating. If unfamiliar vocabulary is included it becomes a vocabulary test, which destroys its validity as a measurement of speed. This sort of item should be used liberally at every point past about the first half year of instruction.



Overlooking Amsterdam harbor is the Weeping Tower, a centuries-old reminder of the wives and mothers who wept as they waved goodbye to the men going to sea—an eloquent, historical reminder to many in coastal cities.

—Z. Lichtenberg

The testing devices suggested up to now have dealt with positive matching of elements of the writing system with elements of the sound system; or they have required the student to recognize changes in the writing system that correspond to sequential changes shown in a picture-story. No burden of interpretation has been laid on the reader. No recognition of stylistic alternatives is expected. In his later study, however, the student should come into contact with ideas of a more ambiguous nature, more subtle in their implication. The student's appreciation of this more advanced type of reading may depend on his ability to form intelligent and sensitive inferences—to respond intellectually or emotionally to the more refined elements of the language, or to interpret cultural data. Examples of linguistic/cultural elements from which significant inferences may be read would be the use of the familiar or formal address, the use of archaisms, slang expressions, or attitudes towards the social institutions and traditions.

The evaluation of reading at this level will require at least one paragraph of culturally authentic material, preferably a brief story or description of a person or event. Only a limited amount of time should be allowed for reading the material; not all students should expect to finish (then the test can be readministered at a later date to demonstrate progress to both student and teacher).

Student responses can be of four kinds, each at a more discriminating level of comprehension (and each to be evaluated at a correspondingly greater value):

1. The student checks true-or-false statements of fact or gross interpretation.
2. The student indicates the most nearly correct statements of a series of multiple-choice items.
3. A list of possible inferences, value judgments, and interpretations is presented, from which the student indicates his agreement or disagreement.
4. A list of questions is presented to the student, to which he is to respond in complete statements in the target language. At this level of instruction, writing in the target language ought not to be a serious influence on the validity of the measurement.

At the very highest levels of study direct approaches to the analysis of style can be undertaken. At the same time the closely-related skill of translation might be evaluated. To evaluate sensitivity to style, certain brief passages in the reading selection can be indicated. For each marked passage a number of alternative ways of saying the same thing is given. The student chooses the one most nearly approximating the original passage. If the alternate passages are given in English translations, then the same technique becomes a good device for measuring translating skill.

Writing

The general nature of testing written language is determined by two essential facts. Writing is a secondary skill, like reading, and it is an active skill, like speaking.

Tests of writing are like tests of reading in that they are easy to administer. Any part of a class group can take a written test—even several different tests—without interfering with the activities of the rest. A large class can be tested in about the same length of time as a small one.

No equipment more complicated than pencil and paper is really required, and scoring can usually be done quite systematically, with fair objectivity and at whatever time the teacher finds most convenient. These considerations sometimes tempt teachers to give written tests even when they are not appropriate.

Tests of writing are like tests of speaking in that they are difficult to compose. In both of the active skills, a number of components of behavior interact in a complicated way. It is hard to compose tests that adequately separate these components so that they can be fairly evaluated.

One of the favorite traditional tests of writing is the dictation, which is scored by counting the number of mistakes. This is a useful device in the case of the student who makes no mistakes. In the other cases, the score is a very crude measure—of what?

It is often difficult or impossible to know whether an error is due to deficiency in aural discrimination, comprehension, spelling, grammar, vocabulary, speed—or some combination of these. With proper control, the dictation can be a useful test of some things, but not of everything.

The component parts of writing correspond to those of speaking, and can arbitrarily be confined to a few broad categories or extended to many narrow ones. Here we will use a division into four categories of skill in writing—orthography, grammar, production and composition. The following sections will define these terms, as they are used here, and will offer some suggestions for composing tests for evaluating each type of skill. Often, the same test may serve for the diagnosis of two or more skills. In these instances, the problem will be to make a separate evaluation of each.

In the beginning stages of language learning, tests should seek to measure listening comprehension apart from the other language skills.

Orthography. This category includes the purely mechanical control of all the elemental symbols and conventions of writing. It embraces spelling, accentuation, punctuation, capitalization and legibility.

Except in the earliest stages of learning to write, a student requires little formal testing in orthography. As in the case of pronunciation, first training is through imitation of carefully chosen and reliable models. Little opportunity is given to make mistakes, and a constant scrutiny of class exercises is maintained. Any consistent relationships that exist between pronunciation and orthography are stressed to the point of habitual association. This, of course, assumes that an accurate control of pronunciation precedes learning to write.

After the teacher has reason to suppose that some skill in orthography has been achieved, simple dictation tests can be used as a check against judgment. By "simple dictation" two qualifications are intended. First, the content is carefully screened to fall well inside the student's range of aural control of vocabulary, grammar and sentence pattern. It should be as nearly mistake-proof in this respect as is possible. Second, scoring should be done on the basis of orthography, and on nothing else. Needless to say, orthographic problems that have not been thoroughly dealt with should not be included in a test of orthography.

Later, after that kind of test yields near-perfect results consistently, material can be purposely included *because* it is unfamiliar. Of course, the unfamiliar words must not be deceptively spelled if the intention is to test the student's grasp of principles. Unpredictable orthography must be taught and tested item by item, at a slow rate of accumulation. If undertaken in massive lists, or in a constant rapid succession, irregular spellings are confusing and unlikely to be mastered efficiently.

After basic training in orthography has been concluded, it is not necessary to give separate tests of this skill. Any written test (other than one utilizing copied material) can yield an orthography score. This score should, of course, be derived and expressed separately from scores on grammar, composition, or production.

Suggestions for scoring orthography: *Each word in a sentence or group provides only one opportunity to be right or wrong.* To count several mistakes in a single word yields bad statistics, as well as mistaken impressions about the function of spelling. *Each orthography score should represent fairly closely the percentage of success*, rather than some arbitrary count of successes or failures. If this suggestion is followed, a series of test scores clearly shows a student's rate

The local police station in a European hamlet, so different from what we expect to see within our own country.

—Z. Lichtenberg

of progress. *A consistent, if arbitrary, system must be used in scoring ambiguous errors.* This means that such errors as Spanish *lloro* for *lloró* must regularly be treated as grammatical failures or orthographic errors, not both, and not a capricious mixture of the two interpretations.

In general, students should not suffer double jeopardy for any one problem, and teachers should make test scores as useful as possible. An arbitrary interpretation of causes of breakdown will undoubtedly be wrong sometimes, but at least it will weigh test scores in a consistent direction. This will give trustworthy progress *profiles* for the development of the different skills, even though net scores for a particular skill may be slightly high or low.

Grammar. Written tests of grammar, like oral tests of the same sort of learning, will generally be parallel in form to the exercises used for structural drills. Any variations of substitution drills, transformation drills, and so on, that are adequate for teaching grammar patterns are quite easily adaptable to testing. Each kind of exercise has, of course, its own peculiar advantages and disadvantages for the teaching and testing of different kinds of grammatical structures.

Probably the first written grammar tests for any student will not deal with new grammar, but will test the transfer into writing of forms already mastered orally. For such systems as noun-adjective agreements and verb-inflection patterns, ordinary substitution exercises will serve as tests.

EXAMPLE:

Instructions: Rewrite the model sentence, using the new beginning shown for each problem, and making other changes only where they are needed.

Model: **Los ninos** *se fueron sin desayunarse.*

Sample problem: *Mi hermana* __________ __________.

Solution: *Mi hermana se fue sin desayunarse.*

1. *Miguel* __________.
2. *Nosotros* __________.

More advanced work will involve the testing of patterns that are more related to writing than to speech, such as longer sentence patterns. In such a case, transformation exercises may provide the most appropriate test form. Still using Spanish, consider the example of one kind of passive sentence.

EXAMPLE:

Instructions: Rewrite each of the problem sentences in the same way that the sample sentence is rewritten below, keeping the information unchanged, but making the sentence passive.

Sample problem: *Cristóbal Colón no descubrió el nuevo mundo.*

Solution: *El nuevo mundo no fue descubierto por Cristóbal Colón.*

1. *Unos alumnos escribieron esas palabras.*
2. *Etc.*

In each grammar test, or in each section of a longer test, there should be one particular focus of attention, and scoring should be based exclusively on the student's control of that one struc-

A course that is conceived as several years of organized sequential varied experience requires a sophisticated package of materials. From this panel board the teacher plays recorded materials for classroom drill, laboratory exercise and testing. She also listens to responses.

ture, even though separate scores may be tabulated for other things. In the example immediately above, the construction of the sentence might be paramount. If that were the case, *Esas palabras fueron escribidas por unos alumnos* would be an acceptable solution for problem number one. If it had been intended as a test of control of participial forms, the solution would be wrong. In either case, the teacher would call the student's attention to the incorrect form by showing what should have been done.

A test in which all kinds of performance are evaluated in one score is almost useless for diagnostic and planning purposes.

Needless to say, a teacher makes informal evaluations of student's control of new structures before entering into formal testing. When subjective evaluation indicates that a structure is well controlled by most students, a well-constructed and carefully-scored test will verify or refute this judgment, and will indicate the kind and amount of help needed by each student. It will, incidentally, yield a basis for grades, when combined with other pertinent data.

Composition. This category is in reality a complex of skills. It can be reasonably defined in several different ways, depending upon the learner's stage of progress and the different purposes that composition may serve.

In the earliest stages of written composition, the mere act of reordering or transforming a sentence (rather than copying one), or responding to a question by choosing a stock answer, may be all that is required.

At a more mature level, composition will involve building sequences of sentences into paragraphs, and sequences of paragraphs into a coherent essay, story or other creation.

At any stage, the key to defining composition lies in the fact that it requires a selection of expression. On first examination of this idea, it might seem incomplete without the addition of something about the selection of thoughts. A little reflection will show that, while some writers provide both the content and the expression, a great many able composers earn a good living by writing only on assigned content. In the language classroom, this is the norm, and should be.

In an exercise or test devoted to composition, the teacher's best chance of success and objectivity lies in controlling the content of the composition rather rigidly. The student is trying to learn to make expression serve meaning. The teacher tests to find out how well the student can do it. The constant that makes this possible is a set of ideas *chosen by the teacher.*

To the teacher of English I, composition means something a trifle different from what it means to the teacher of French V. The English teacher works with native students who, no matter how far down the grade scale, have a gigantic inventory of expressions available. In their own language these students can find an expression, no matter how inelegant, for any idea that they are capable of understanding. Since this is true, the teacher can concentrate on adding variety to their expression, exploring sentence rhythm, developing a good paragraph, using good story form, and such refinements.

Hopefully, some of these refinements may transfer into the student's compositions in a foreign language. But the primary necessity in Spanish or German is to build a repertory of expression that will serve the most basic needs. This is not the same consideration that governs the learning of forms, syntax and vocabulary, though these learnings make composition possible. If a composition test is scored on the basis of orthographic or grammatical correctness, then the point of composition has been missed.

The point of a composition test is to determine to what extent a student can select from his stock of language the sentences that express an imposed set of ideas. Style and refinements of form assume importance gradually, over a long period of time.

The earliest composition tests may be question-answer tests. These have several advantages. The teacher can choose questions that have only a limited range of possible answers. Questions can be selected that are so easy that no serious problem of comprehension arises. The problems are short and without complications of essay form or idea development. Unlike a grammar test in the same form, this test will require a series of responses that are structurally different from each other. Mechanical faults will not be scored against composition, unless they obscure the function of the sentence.

Other transformations can be similarly used. Answers may be given that require the student to compose a variety of questions. Affirmatives may be given that require negatives or opposites. In any case, structural variety is required.

Some of the best composition tests, for beginners or sophisticates, require the students to write about a visible object, scene or picture. Since these tests do not depend upon a sentence-by-sentence language cue, they fall into the category of "free" composition. Actually, the amount of freedom that the student has in selecting content is determined by the teacher. The visual itself imposes a great many limitations, even before instructions are given. The instructions can further limit the content to description, specification of spatial relationships, action sentences, deductions about personal identities or relationships or narration based on the visual—to name only a few possibilities.

The composition test based on a visual is similar to those based on a selected topic *(My Family, What I Did on Summer Vacation).* The principal difference is that the visual provides a stricter check on the relation of expression to content, since the teacher knows all the details of content. It also gives a more uniform basis for comparing test results, since all students work from exactly the same content.

One of the best features of either the visual or the topic test is that the possible response is open-ended. The best student is not tied to the same set of possible responses that limit the poorest student. In a timed examination, such tests can yield a production score (see below) as well as one for composition, another for grammar (within limits) and still another for orthography.

The topic test has one peculiarity that makes its use advantageous on occasion. It provides, in a lengthier format, the same control of grammatical manipulation that the teacher enjoys with the sentence-transformation test. Given the composition title "If I Had a Million," a student either uses condition sentences or misses the whole point. A useful grammar score, based on one main point of grammar, can be derived in addition to the composition score.

All composition tests are variations upon either the transformation or the topic test. It may even be argued that the transformation problem is simply the shortest and most tightly controlled version of the topic problem.

The kind of scoring that is appropriate for composition depends upon the amount of control that the teacher has built into the problems. In extremely free composition ("Write for ten minutes about any topic you like"), there is probably no point in trying to use a numerical scoring system. This great degree of freedom, and the use of letter grades, are appropriate in upper level classes in which all students are linguistically rather mature and capable of complex composition.

To score the earliest composition tests, such as question-answer problems, the use of a computer-like system of right-or-wrong scoring serves best. Results are recorded as percentage scores. An answer is "right" if it is an essentially correct sentence or phrase that makes sense as a response.

To score a topic test, or one based on a visual, is slightly more complicated. Suppose that the teacher shows a picture of some children playing, and instructs the class to describe what can be seen in the picture.

Student A writes five sentences:

El niño es alto. La niña es pequeña. La pelota es azul.

El cielo es azul. Los árboles son verdes.

Student B also writes five sentences:

Dos niños están en el parque. El muchacho es mayor que su hermana.

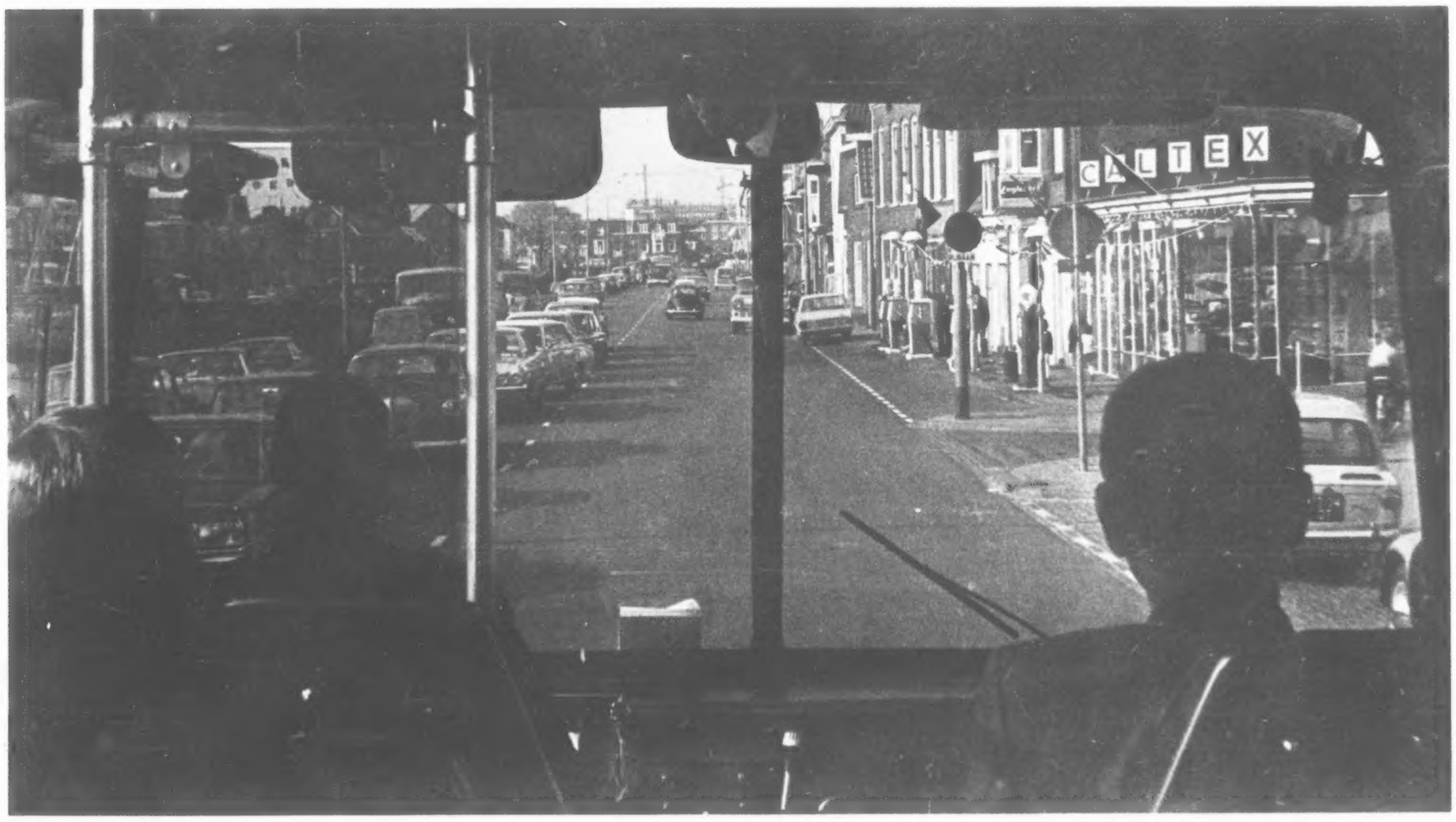
Tienen una pelota azul. Hay muchos árboles verdes. Hace buen tiempo.

Both students have successfully carried out instructions and have used good orthography and correct grammar. Still, in respect to *composition* (selecting from a stock of language), student B has obviously done more than student A, and his score should reflect this. Student A has really done five variations upon a single sentence. Student B has transmitted essentially the same information, but has displayed a repertory of five different sentences.

One fair way of scoring would give student A six points (five for adequately expressing five items of content, one for composing a sentence), and student B ten points, on the same basis. These can be expressed as percentages, calculated according to the teacher's observations of what constitutes maximum performance at this stage of learning. If student B represents the best that can be expected, then student A scores 60%. The *composition* scores, incidentally, would remain the

One thing European city dwellers have in common with metropolitan Americans —traffic problems.

—Z. Lichtenberg



same if either student had made slips in orthography or grammar so slight as to leave the sentences intact.

Production. Production is the skill that corresponds, in writing, to fluency of speech. A measurement of production is not a measurement of quality, though enough quality is assumed to assure adequate communication of ideas. To measure language production is to gauge a student's ability to produce functional language units under pressure. In testing, this means working against the clock.

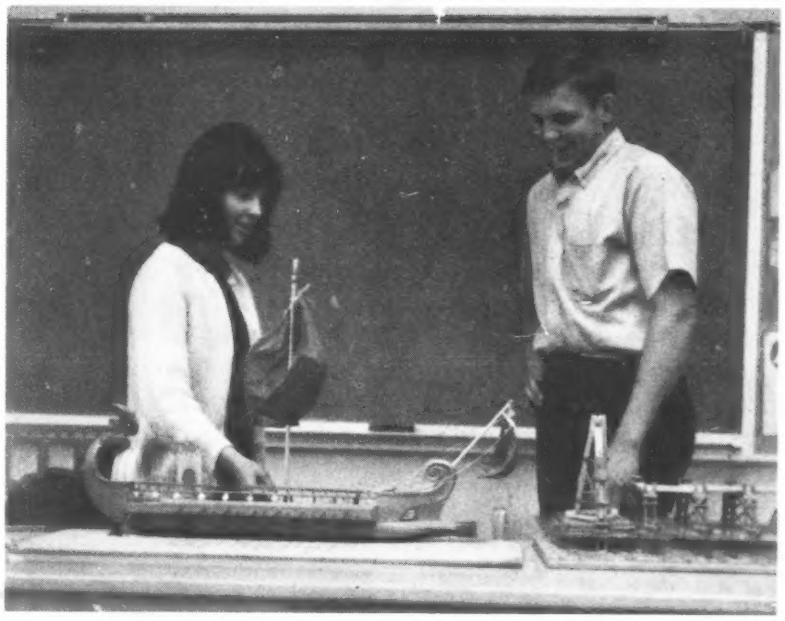
Production is in reality a sub-category of composition. In the examples given immediately above, students A and B each received five points for production. The "composition" score for each student could have been expressed as two scores labeled respectively "production" and "sentence range" or some such term, but only if all students spent exactly the same amount of time on the problem.

If a composition test is merely one section of an examination that allows the student to distribute his time as he chooses—or if it constitutes the whole test but is not timed—then production should not be scored separately.

The evaluation of production merits special attention, even though it is only one of several aspects of the complicated active skills—speaking and writing. If it is our intention to prepare students for the language problems of the real world, then this element of skill is crucial in defining success or failure. Good spelling and perfect grammar are of little consequence when they function so haltingly that the message is sent too late or not at all. The same consideration applies in aural comprehension (which is always a timed problem) and in reading (which usually imposes some limitations of time).

The scoring of production, then, rests on two bases—a judgment by the teacher about the quantity of passable responses in a given time that adds up to 100% (probably based on observation of the work of good students), and a tabulation of the successes of each student against this standard.

This can be very simple sometimes. In a series of one-sentence problems, with thirty seconds allowed for each response, each response is a hit or a miss. In an open-ended-response problem (such as the one faced by students A and B), the scoring method is a little more complicated, as indicated. In a free-response problem of any length, scoring is bound to be rather subjective, but it can still be done on a percentage basis, which is generally preferable to letter grades.



Viking ship. Some of the best composition tests, for beginners or sophisticates, require students to write about a visible object, scene or picture. The visual imposes a great many limitations.

Testing for cultural understanding

Testing for cultural understanding will naturally be integrated with the testing of language skills and should be in the foreign language whenever possible. Objective examinations to test this understanding specifically have not yet been developed to the same degree of completeness and accuracy as for the basic language skills. Knowledge of the formal culture of a country, its literary, artistic, scientific, and social accomplishments and contributions, can be tested with little difficulty; but the understanding of *deep* culture in its anthropological aspects, the awareness of the everyday life of a people rather than the refinements, is more difficult to evaluate.

For the testing of knowledge about the *formal* culture, printed tests are already available. The old Cooperative Modern Language Tests, for example, give an entire section to such information and knowledge.[5] Tests for evaluating the understanding of the linguistic and situational aspects of *deep* culture are currently being developed. Meanwhile the ingenious teacher can devise his own.

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[5] These tests can be obtained from Educational Testing Services, Princeton, New Jersey.

Testing the understanding of linguistic appropriateness in specific situations requires test items in which the basic problem is the appropriate cultural use of language. For example, a multiple-choice question may give a situation and the choice of three possible verbal responses. All are correct grammatically but not culturally. A dialogue may also be developed with certain statements and responses deleted. From sets of options the student will select the most appropriate. Later the student may complete such a dialogue by filling in the correct forms himself.

Tests can also be constructed to test the student's understanding of situational significance. Similar forms of behavior often have different functions in the foreign culture and the native one. Tests can be devised to evaluate the student's awareness of these differences.

For example, the student may be asked to comment on culturally meaningful details in a selected picture or reading selection. Using pictures of a similar situation in the foreign culture and in his own native culture, he may be asked to note contrasting cultural details.

Another same-versus-difference test can be constructed as follows: Three actions are described, two of which are different in the foreign culture but the same in the native. The student is asked which of the three actions are the same.

Another variation of multiple choice question can be devised in which the significance of the form of behavior is given in both the foreign and the native cultures.

A third alternative should be a distractor which seems plausible but is not right. Fourth and fifth items may be incorrect meanings induced from the context.

Although these skills (listening, speaking, reading and writing) and cultural concepts have been discussed separately, they are part of a closely integrated whole and must be presented as such. Only thus can the student achieve true cross-cultural communication.

The language teacher may feel overwhelmed by the task of attaining all these objectives. However, he should be reassured by the fact that they represent ideal goals for which he should aim without becoming discouraged if his grasp does not equal his reach.

Grading

One of the end products of evaluation is the assigning of grades to students. Too often this is seen as the whole purpose of evaluation, and it would be far better to get grading in a reasonable perspective. It is only a by-product of testing and other kinds of evaluation.

To the extent that student performance can be recorded as a percentage of what is possible or what can be reasonably expected, the teacher has a useful tool for gauging the effectiveness of teaching, individual progress of students, and the necessities of future work.

To the extent that evaluation relates to specific kinds of learning, the teacher is able to pinpoint strengths and failure points, and distribute teaching and learning energies effectively.

To the extent that evaluation is merely a general stamp of approval or disapproval, it is only a grade and not a useful tool. To be sure, students can be trained to think of high grades as a goal of their school work. Some may even work as hard to get an "A" as if it were a legitimate end in itself. But the "D" that a student sees as his average tells him only that his work is poor. It does not tell him just what is wrong or how to do something about it.

A letter grade can be a useful summing up at the end of a grading period. Even here, it is useful to give the student a skill-by-skill breakdown. On individual tests or exercises, precise and fairly objective notations about performance in each kind of problem are much to be preferred.

Except in the specially-provided spaces on grade cards (Effort, Social Adjustment, Citizenship, etc.), grades should relate directly to the skills of language learning.

Grades should not be a disciplinary device.

Grades should not be affected by petty details of classroom administration ("Ten points off because your paper was late").

Grades should not be forced to fit a statistical curve.

Grades should not be artificially low to prove that the teacher has high standards.

Grades should not be artificially high to show that the teacher is a fine fellow.

Grades should be based on a standard that fits students, not one that would be appropriate for language teachers.

In general, high grades should go to students who have a high level of performance in language learning, and lower grades to students whose performance level is lower. Evaluation must be so carefully done that a teacher can have great confidence that grades and performance levels are in harmony.

Chapter

5

Materials and equipment for language instruction

Materials

Although it has been common practice in the past to speak of school district textbook adoptions, it is no longer appropriate to refer to that process in such a casual manner. Most major publishing houses have recently developed foreign language program packages which utilize a variety of learning devices—films, filmstrips, classroom and laboratory tapes, charts, posters and other related printed and audio-visual materials.

In fact, the audio-visual features of modern foreign language programs are becoming dominant. They're even more basic to the first levels of language learning than is the accompanying printed material.

While some of the programs developed in recent years are slightly more expensive initially than the conventional textbook, experience has shown that markedly improved pupil performance may definitely be expected through proper use of these visual-audio-lingual materials.

The results obtained clearly offset the initially greater cost of these more highly refined and sophisticated materials. This is particularly true when the cost of the teaching program is projected and amortized over a five-year period, because the audio-visual materials for the classroom and laboratory are purchased once, and they last throughout the adoption.

The individual student materials are generally less costly than the traditional textbooks. Indeed, in view of the rapid technological changes occurring at present, five years may well represent the maximum life expectancy of any given set of materials before obsolescence becomes a serious problem.

The new multi-media approach to foreign language learning does place additional responsibility on school personnel charged with the selection of the package program best suited to the philosophy, expectations and unique learning situation of a particular school district. It becomes increasingly difficult to choose judiciously a complex foreign language package.

Superficial appeal is not enough; a tough-minded examining committee must probe beneath the surface to discover whether a sound psychological and linguistic basis for second-language learning is provided. Wherever possible, classroom teachers, with the assistance of knowledgeable resource persons, should arrive at a mutual decision as to which materials will be used within a school district.

The Office of the State Supervisor of Foreign Language Programs[6] offers, upon school district request, helpful suggestions and advice about current foreign language materials which merit consideration. Frequently the experiences of other school districts of similar size and characteristics will also yield invaluable information to a school system planning curriculum improvement. In any case, it would seem prudent to adopt one program district-wide in each language, rather than to permit independent choices in separate buildings.

Because of the continuing revolution in methodology and materials, it is essential that teachers, whether experienced or newly arrived in the

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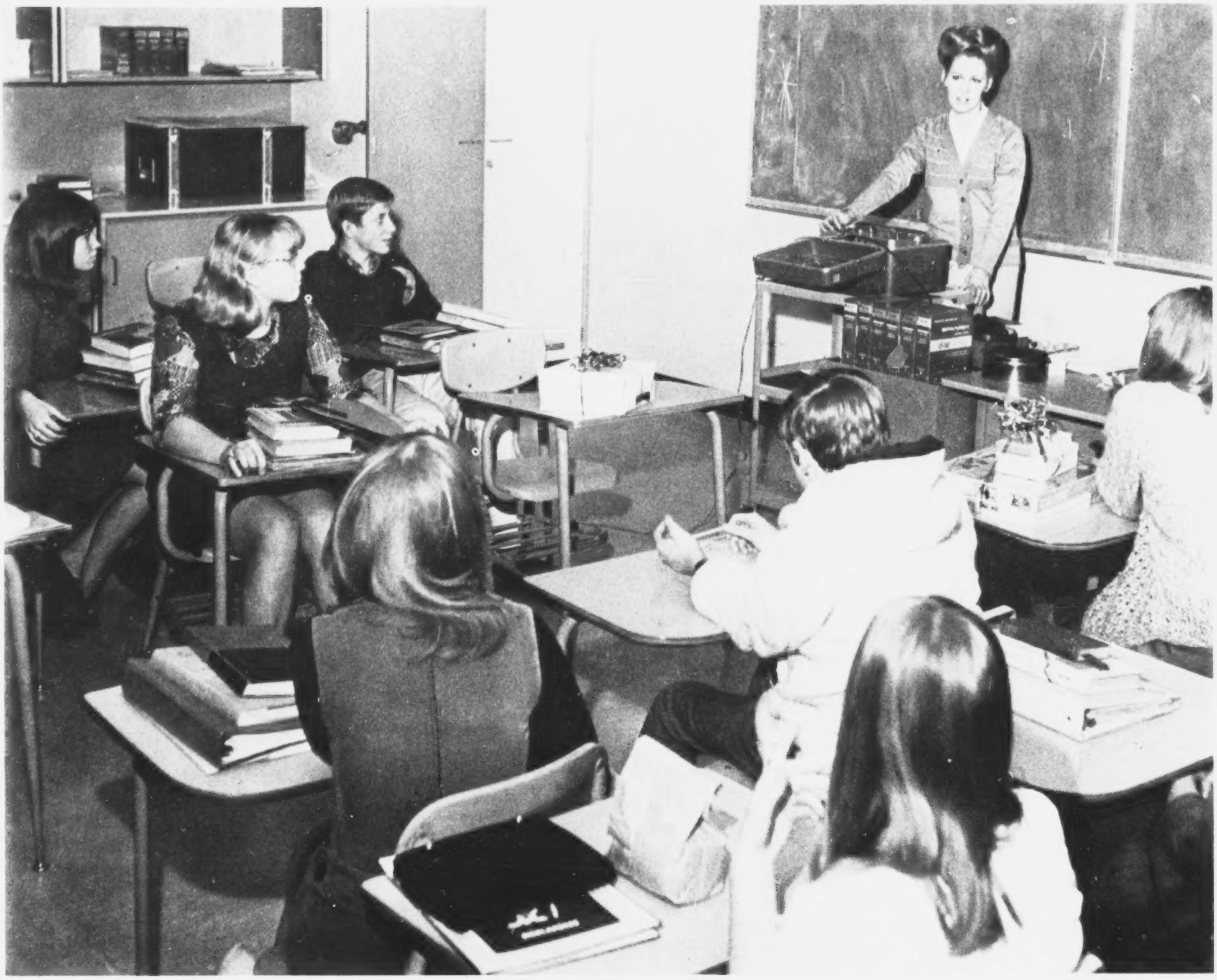
[6] Office of the Superintendent of Public Instruction, Olympia.



Certain phases of group language instruction can be performed much more effectively with the assistance of audio-visual materials and equipment.

classroom, be willing to experiment and adjust their teaching techniques to new knowledge, expectations and circumstances.

To be effective, each newly adopted program demands thorough in-service training, either in advance of or concurrent with its implementation. Most reliable publishing houses and suppliers furnish consultant services and demonstration workshops to a school system selecting their materials, and assurance of this vital service in teacher orientation should be sought from any publisher whose materials are being seriously examined by a screening committee.

In outline form, basic criteria which seem essential to evaluate foreign language materials are presented here on a grid. They should help individuals and groups to arrive at sound judgments about the myriad programs currently available.

The basic materials for a foreign language program should provide:

CRITERIA	Outstanding	Above Average	Average	Below Average
1. Emphasis on developing the listening and speaking skills as primary objectives of modern foreign language learning.				
2. Sequential presentation of the four language skills, listening, speaking, reading & writing, with each new content item at the beginning level.				
3. A structural linguistic approach to the formation of authentic language habit patterns.				
4. Greater relative emphasis on structural control than on development of large vocabulary in the early levels of language learning, with subsequent vocabulary expansion at the more advanced levels.				
5. A high-frequency vocabulary selected on the basis of modern scientific research on the spoken language, or in the case of the classical languages, on the written content of the program.				
6. Continual presentation of the language in authentic cultural context which is appropriate to the maturity and interest of the student.				
7. Effective transition between the four language skills, particularly between those of the spoken & the written forms of the language.				
8. Continual re-cycling of content, reinforcing previously acquired skills, while interweaving additional skills & content.				
9. A diversity of approach through many stimuli, visual-audio-lingual, to assure multiple access to language proficiency while maintaining high student & teacher interest.				

CRITERIA	Outstanding	Above Average	Average	Below Average
10. Complete materials for the teacher, the classroom and laboratory, & the student: a. Teacher materials (1) Manuals on methodology suggesting procedures & techniques appropriate to the teaching program, including sample lesson plans. (2) Additional relevant aids such as cue cards, etc.				
b. Classroom and laboratory materials (1) High-quality tape recordings of basic course content for listening and speaking practice, using a variety of native speakers with standard accent. (2) An adequate number of high-quality visual aids providing the situational context for the structural content of the program. (3) Adequate and high-quality materials for frequent and convenient evaluation of the four separate language skills.				
c. Student materials—For use at school and at home (1) Written and recorded exercises for guided independent practice of the skills and content concurrently employed in the classroom, not relying on translation. (2) Attractive pictorial material directly relevant to classwork. (3) Durability commensurate with the cost of the item.				

Equipment

Although there have been some attempts at creating programmed learning in foreign languages, relying entirely on audio-visual materials and equipment without the benefit of an instructor's presence, no wholly satisfactory course has yet been developed. This is largely because certain phases of instruction require greater versatility and sensitivity than has been achieved through programming.

For example, correction of phonetic errors, or explanation and verification of meanings through question-and-answer techniques without recourse to translation, are phases of instruction which still are best performed by a skilled teacher working directly with students.

Certain other phases of group language instruction, however, can be performed much more effectively with the assistance of audio-visual materials and equipment than without.

The initial presentation of new content may rely heavily upon recordings and visual materials to provide authentic models of speech and a representation of meanings. They may also be used to provide models for the necessary repetition and structure-drill phases of instruction, and especially for an individualization of these processes. In addition, such equipment will facilitate continual and periodic evaluation of student progress in listening and speaking, both by the student himself and by the teacher.

Finally, the presentation of the vital cultural context of the language can be most effectively augmented through the use of films, filmstrips, slides, discs and tapes.

Specifically, audio-visual equipment may:

1. Provide for either group or individual listening.
2. Provide for individual listening and speaking with instantaneous reproduction of the student response through his own headphones for greater clarity and objectivity of self-evaluation.
3. In addition to one and two above, provide the student with comparison through individual recording and playback of the student responses, along with the master program.
4. Provide monitoring and student-teacher communication.
5. Provide for various forms of viewing in any combination with 1, 2, 3 or 4 above.

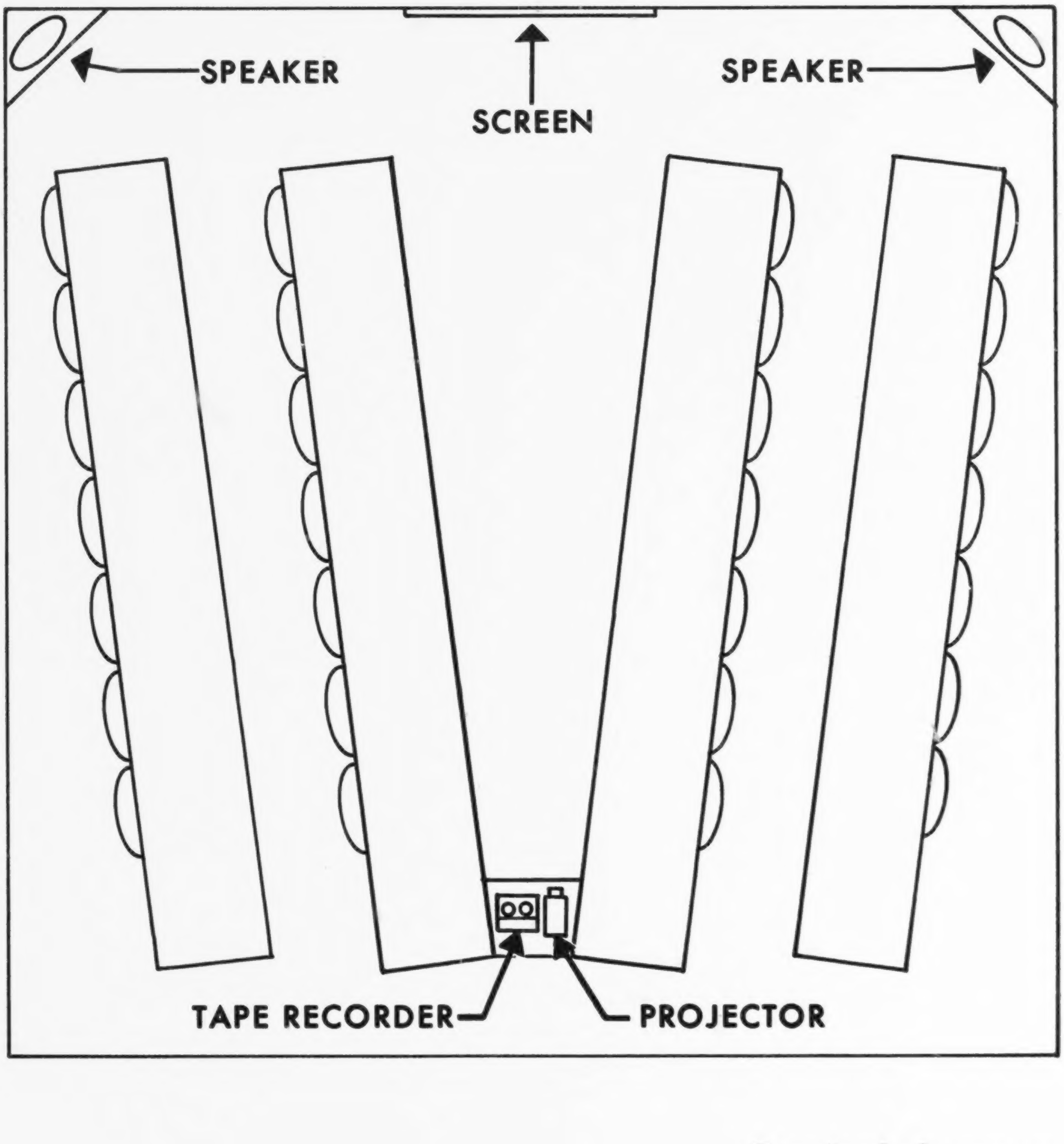
In any case, the type of program currently offered or contemplated for future use will determine the type of electronic equipment and the quantity needed to implement the teaching goals.

Standard classroom

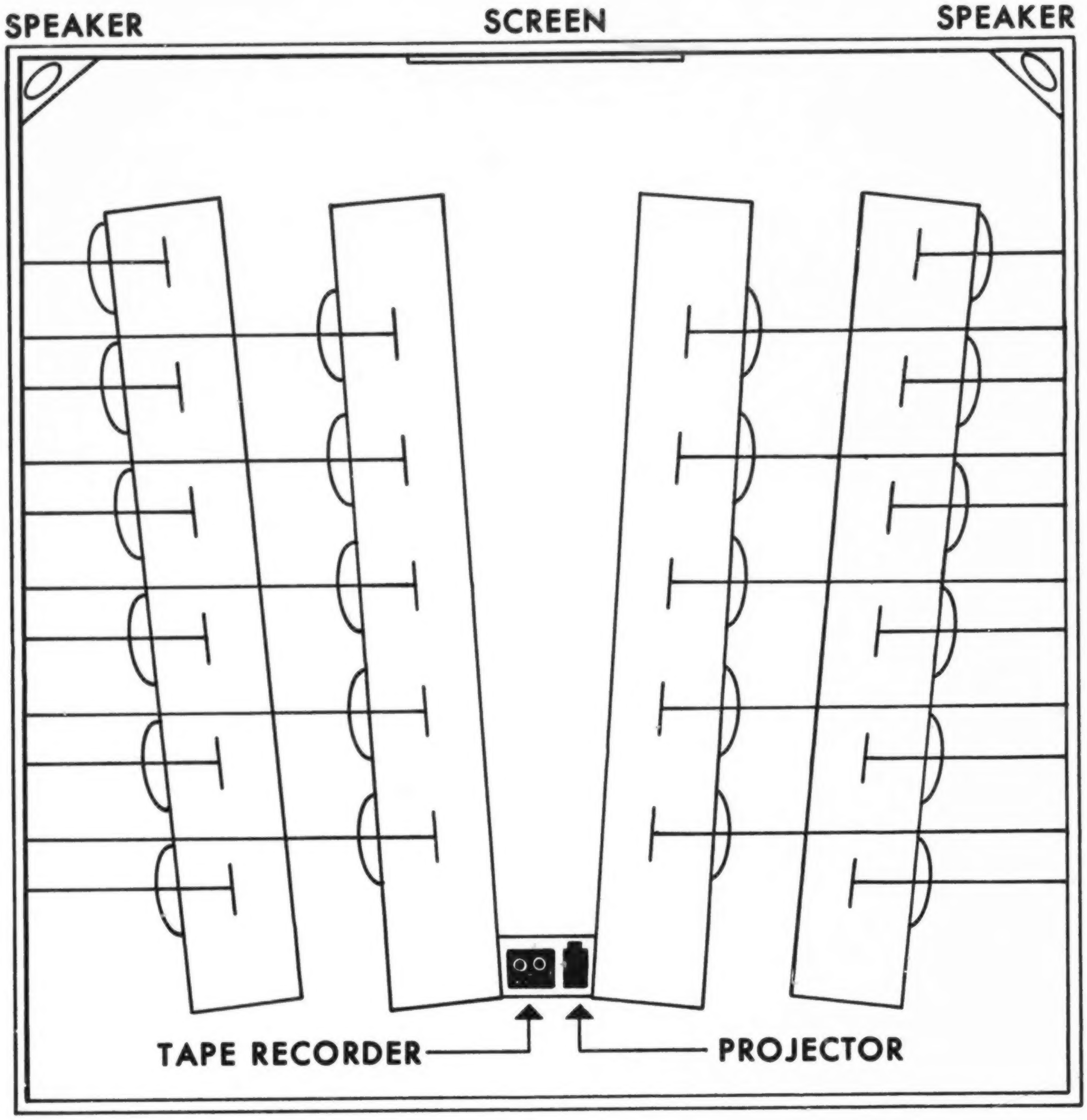
In a standard classroom, audio-visual equipment for the basic foreign language program should be readily available for each class session, without undue inconvenience either to the teacher or to the students. Depending on the particular nature of the basic course materials in use, *such standard classroom equipment might include any one or any combination of the following items:*

1. Tape recorder.
2. Visual equipment dictated by the type of materials that are in use such as filmstrips, films, posters, etc.

Equipment of this type, available in the standard classroom, is a basic and minimal prerequisite to quality modern language instruction.



Standard classroom



Electronic classroom

Wall-mounted, pass-in wiring

Electronic classroom

Research and experience indicate that individual listening-speaking practice with electronic equipment is most productive when carried on daily for brief periods, but that it is not measurably effective if carried on less than twice weekly.

In order to provide such frequent practice sessions, an adequate number of student stations is essential. The electronic classroom can economically provide individualized guided listening-speaking practice for a large group of students, utilizing a master-program source. It does so without moving the entire class to another location, and it does not require special furnishings, expensive alterations or the pre-empting of an additional room for these functions.

Each student station generally consists of a microphone, headphones and an amplifier. The system may be either wired or wireless. The former usually offers two-way communication between teacher and pupil through an intercom, but is quite cumbersome to move. The latter lacks the intercom, but features great mobility. It can readily be moved from classroom to classroom. With either, the teacher can change quickly from classroom instruction to recorded drill sessions using the whole class or small groups.

The relative economy of the electronic classroom, and its relative freedom from serious service problems, may suggest it as a reasonable choice.

More than usual care should be given in new construction or in remodeling to provide classrooms which are free from distracting noise, whether from hallways or from mechanical equipment such as fans and heating ducts. Windows may cause light-control problems for audio-visual instruction. Acoustical treatment of floors, walls, and ceilings is strongly recommended. If movable walls are to be used, sound-isolating material should be incorporated.

The conditions for accurate sound perception must be superior in the foreign language classroom, exceeding the usual requirements.

Taking an afternoon break in a western European city.

Group and individual practice laboratory

The language learning laboratory differs from the electronic classroom in that it generally has special stationary furniture to provide acoustic and visual isolation to each student station, and it often features individual tape recorders, either in the student booth, or in another location with remote controls.

These individual recorders greatly increase the range of possible activities. The student can work at his own pace with individually recorded programs, and he can listen to his own recorded responses, and compare them against the master program. He can take listening-speaking examinations, or, with certain types of equipment, even select his own lesson.

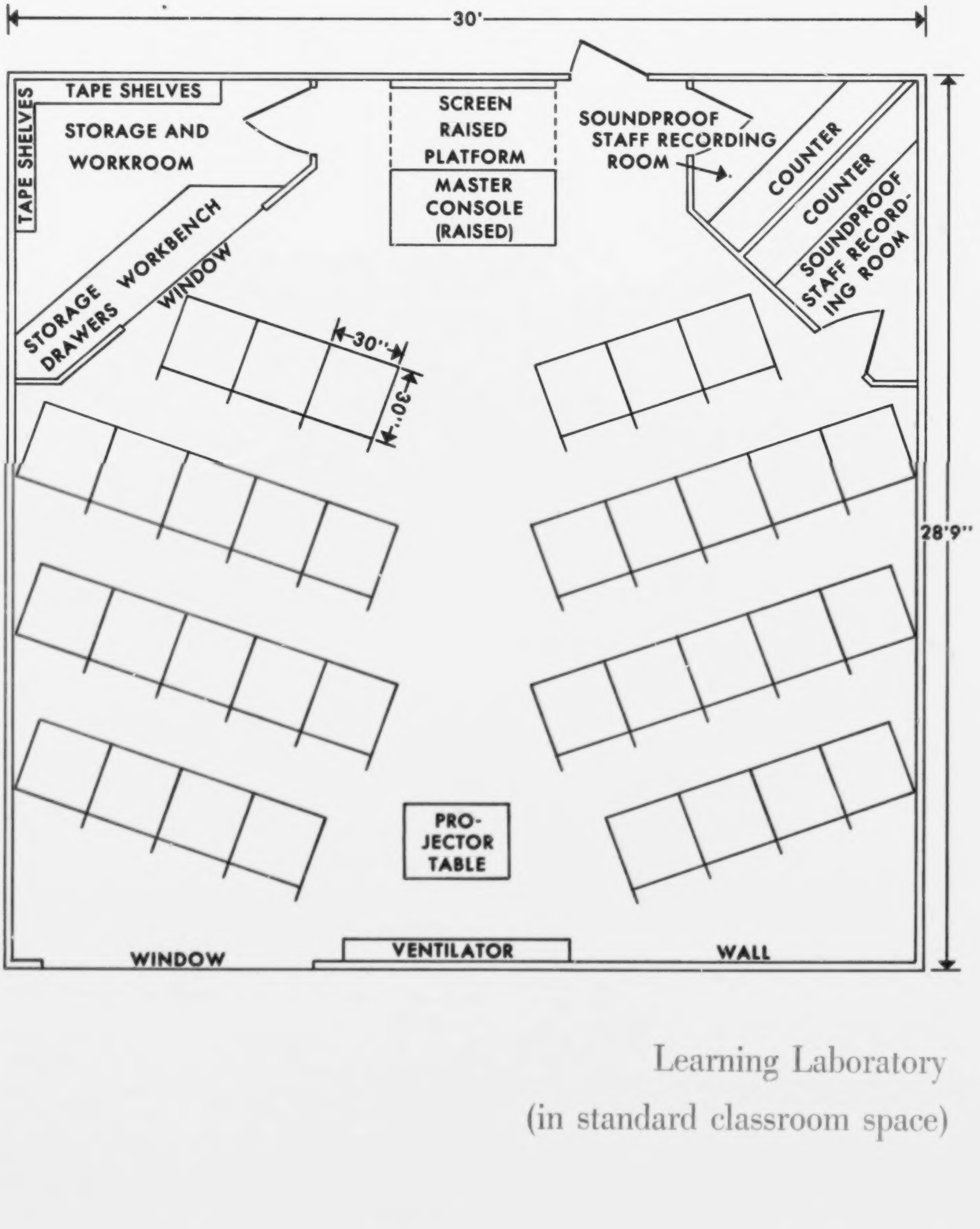
The initial cost per student station is relatively high, sometimes making it difficult to secure enough equipment to be practical. A single laboratory of 30 to 35 student stations may be inadequate to serve a medium or large-sized school. Also, a room or a portion of a room must be quite permanently given over to this equipment, but the acoustic and visual isolation are helpful, and a wide range of functions is secured.

In current laboratory installations the floor is usually level, but it may be advantageous to consider tiered arrangements in a major remodeling or in new school construction so that an amphitheater can be created. This configuration would lend itself well to large-group experiences where a film, filmstrip, overhead projector, or other visual stimuli might focus the learner's attention with accompanying audio-reinforcement and practice.

Detailed observation of a representative number of completed electronic installations should be undertaken if a school district contemplates an initial outlay for language learning facilities or revamping of an already existing arrangement.

Comparison of the many features provided by each manufacture is essential, as is some kind of objective appraisal of the quality and durability of electronic components. Many room arrangements may be noted, as shown here in several sketches, suggesting possibilities and combinations which may be adapted to the paticular characteristics of a given building or classroom space.

Listening comprehension and speaking are the bases of all language.



Learning Laboratory
(in standard classroom space)

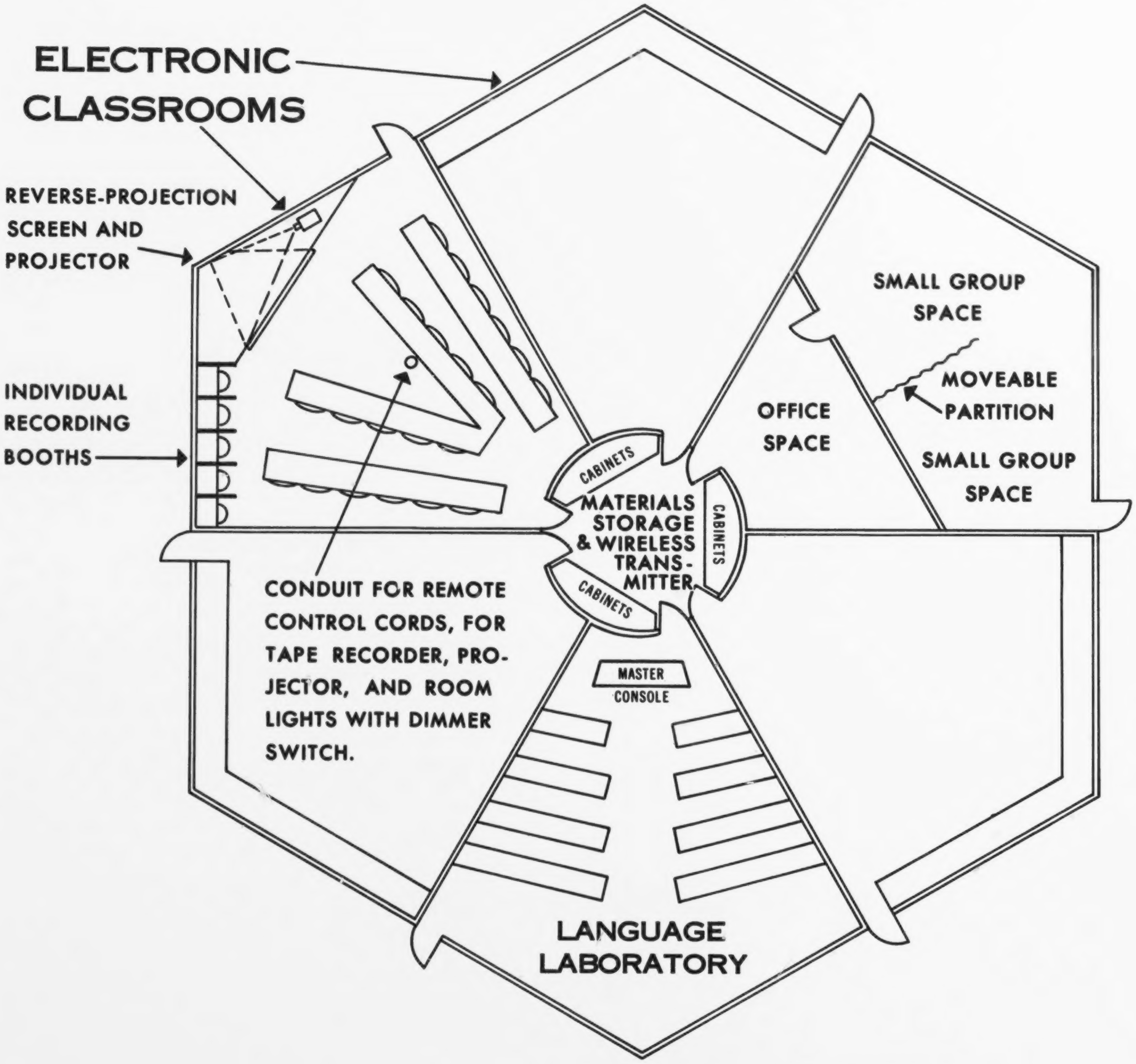
The language learning lab offers special furniture to permit acoustic and visual isolation for each student.

Library-study installations

Some combination of the above-described listening-speaking-viewing equipment, available to the student for individual use during his independent study time, can make a very valuable contribution to his progress in the four language skills.

Such equipment and the accompanying audio-visual materials could be made available to him in a regular language laboratory, if it is not being used for group activities, or in special acoustically isolated areas of the library. Lay personnel and/or library staff may be used for distribution of the materials and supervision of the practice areas.

WIRED OR WIRELESS LISTEN-RESPOND EQUIPMENT IN EACH ROOM.


ELECTRONIC CLASSROOMS
REVERSE-PROJECTION SCREEN AND PROJECTOR
INDIVIDUAL RECORDING BOOTHS
CONDUIT FOR REMOTE CONTROL CORDS, FOR TAPE RECORDER, PROJECTOR, AND ROOM LIGHTS WITH DIMMER SWITCH.
CABINETS
MATERIALS STORAGE & WIRELESS TRANSMITTER
CABINETS
CABINETS
SMALL GROUP SPACE
MOVEABLE PARTITION
OFFICE SPACE
SMALL GROUP SPACE
MASTER CONSOLE
LANGUAGE LABORATORY

NON-PARALLEL WALLS AND ACCOUSTICAL SURFACING CONTROL NOISE.

Audio-visual instruction unit

ABSENCE OF WINDOWS FACILITATES LIGHT CONTROL.

Chapter

6

Organizing the instruction of foreign languages

The organization of time and space in relation to people assumes dramatic significance when viewed in the operating theater of a hospital. Here are the challenging elements of vital struggle. The ticking of a clock, the surgeon's deft movements and the smooth functioning of mechanical devices surrounding the patient become symbols of momentous importance.

But shift the scene to a school room and too often a drama of considerable similarity is played before an audience whose apathy shows lack of comprehension. Yet, here too, precious moments of life tick away; and sometimes both "patient" and "surgeon" fall victim to poor planning, faulty equipment, inadequate space and what is frequently termed insufficient time.

Bringing greater efficiency into the teaching environment and into the scheduling for instruction should be one of our major objectives. There is a particular need for this in foreign language teaching. A good learning situation must include efficient assignment of teachers, effective grouping of students, truly usable facilities and proper allotment of time.

Oriental languages are being introduced into the curriculum in some school districts.
—Courtesy Consulate of Taiwan

Organizing time

Considering the growing complexity in the living patterns of children and adolescents who fill our classes, time for foreign language learning will be of necessity sharply restricted by the demands of other areas. The question thus becomes *how best can we organize what is allotted for instruction in foreign language, in order to*:

1. Provide each child with the opportunity to learn a second language;
2. Secure for each learner the most efficient use of the time he is devoting to the language of his choice;
3. Give each teacher the maximum opportunity to offer the best of his talent and training to his students;
4. Fit the time needs of foreign language instruction into the school's schedule without handicap to other subject areas and, if possible, to their advantage.

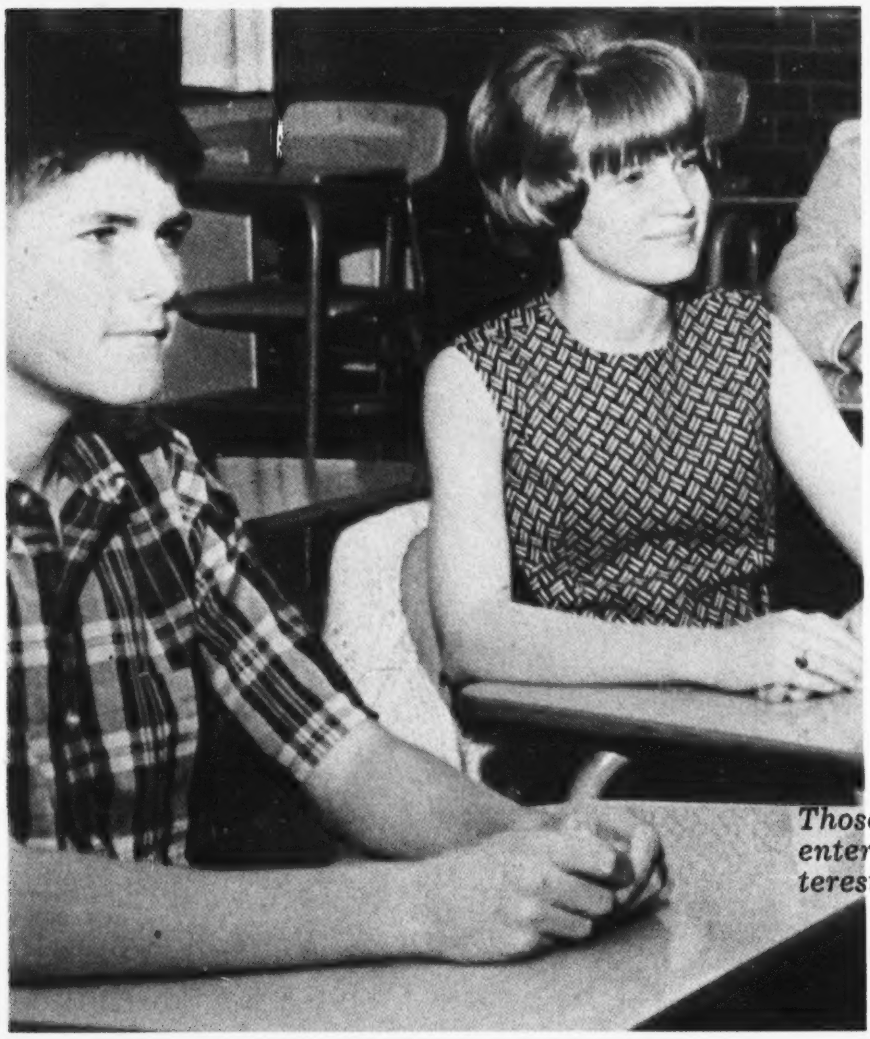
Shortcomings of the Carnegie unit

Our problem is intensified by the fact that schedule changes presently being made in other fields may have inescapable impact on the foreign language field. It seems sensible, therefore, to make innovations ourselves in the interest of good foreign language instruction, rather than being compelled to adjust when changes elsewhere force new arrangements on us. The present system of allotting equal amounts of time daily to virtually every subject area would seem *inadequate to promote our aims, because*:

1. It fails to take into account the obvious fact that given subject areas are not equal in their time needs. It does not take the same amount of time, for example, to start a project in metal shop as to memorize a scene from *As You Like It* or to master the Russian alphabet.
2. Within a given subject area, it presupposes that listening to explanation of new material, sharing learning experiences in group activity, and learning to study independently are all well served within a given daily allowance of rigidly circumscribed time and space.
3. It assumes that a teacher needs the same amount of time daily whether he is explaining new concepts, drilling for memorization, enriching his instruction with background material, developing student initiative for creative activity, or testing.

Demonstrating one type of ear phones in a standard classroom setting.

—Highline School District



Those who perform in a foreign language not only entertain students but make instruction more interesting and effective.

—Highline School District

Considerations for time allotment

To arrive at a daily or weekly time schedule more suitable for the needs of foreign language students than the Carnegie unit of fifty-five minutes per day, *the following questions should be considered:*

1. How much time may a foreign language student spend as a member of a large group receiving and responding to identical materal, such as basic language routines for memorizing, explanations of grammatical principles, presentation of background material, etc?
2. How much time does he need to work with his teacher and other students of similar instructional level in a small group of perhaps 8-15 members?
3. How much time can he profitably spend working in a language laboratory, listening and responding to taped material under trained supervision?
4. How much time does he need to spend in independent study, preferably in a resource center, with access to tapes, records, slides, teaching machines, charts, and books?*

The teacher's schedule needs a similar weighing and evaluation, as well as an *analysis of the following problems:*

1. How much work now performed by a typical foreign language teacher is actually subprofessional . . . able to be done by a clerical assistant or an aide?
2. How much could be done as well, if not not better, by automated devices?
3. How much time during the school day should be given to professional study, planning and preparing lessons, working with other staff members, perhaps in a teaching team, and evaluating student work?

Obviously the responses to these and other similar questions which may be raised will vary from school to school, depending upon size, amount of equipment available, and philosophy of the staff and its administrators. Yet finding satisfactory answers should lead to a happier and more productive situation, both for teaching and learning.

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*Studies of experimental language laboratory groups and central groups without laboratories numbering 523 French students in 10 New York City high schools reveal that students who had only one laboratory practice period a week made no more gains than those in control groups. Students who had daily practice, however, made dramatic gains. *The Language Laboratory—How Effective Is It?* U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Office of Education, pp. 13-14.

The use of time modules

At present, schools thinking in terms of flexible scheduling have been using smaller divisions of time (referred to as "modules") in making their schedules. These vary somewhat in length from school to school, but tend to be units of 15 or 20 minutes. One high school with an experimental schedule has divided its day into periods of 27 minutes, in the belief that such a length of time is appropriate for activities in a large group class.

To hold an adolescent's attention without the interference of too much fatigue, 20 to 30 minutes would seem a practical time allotment. Schools scheduling by modules will probably use a week or more as the basic time unit. Thus the schedule in a given subject, such as foreign language, may vary from day to day, but will be constant within the cycle, at least for a semester. It is important to allow for frequent, brief class periods of study on successive days.

Within this framework, time must next be apportioned for large group activities, small and/or medium group learning and independent study.

During that phase of language learning that consists largely of habit formation, it seems logical that one or more modules at separate times each day be allotted to intensive drill. For example, a large group activity may be scheduled, perhaps for viewing a film or hearing a talk in the target language. And again later in the day time may be devoted to practice in the language laboratory or in a small group. Moreover, as students advance they should become better able to profit from independent study, and their schedules will need to be adjusted accordingly.

Advanced students might be given two periods of regular instruction per week, and three periods for independent study with tapes and study helps prepared by the teacher.

The place of programmed instruction

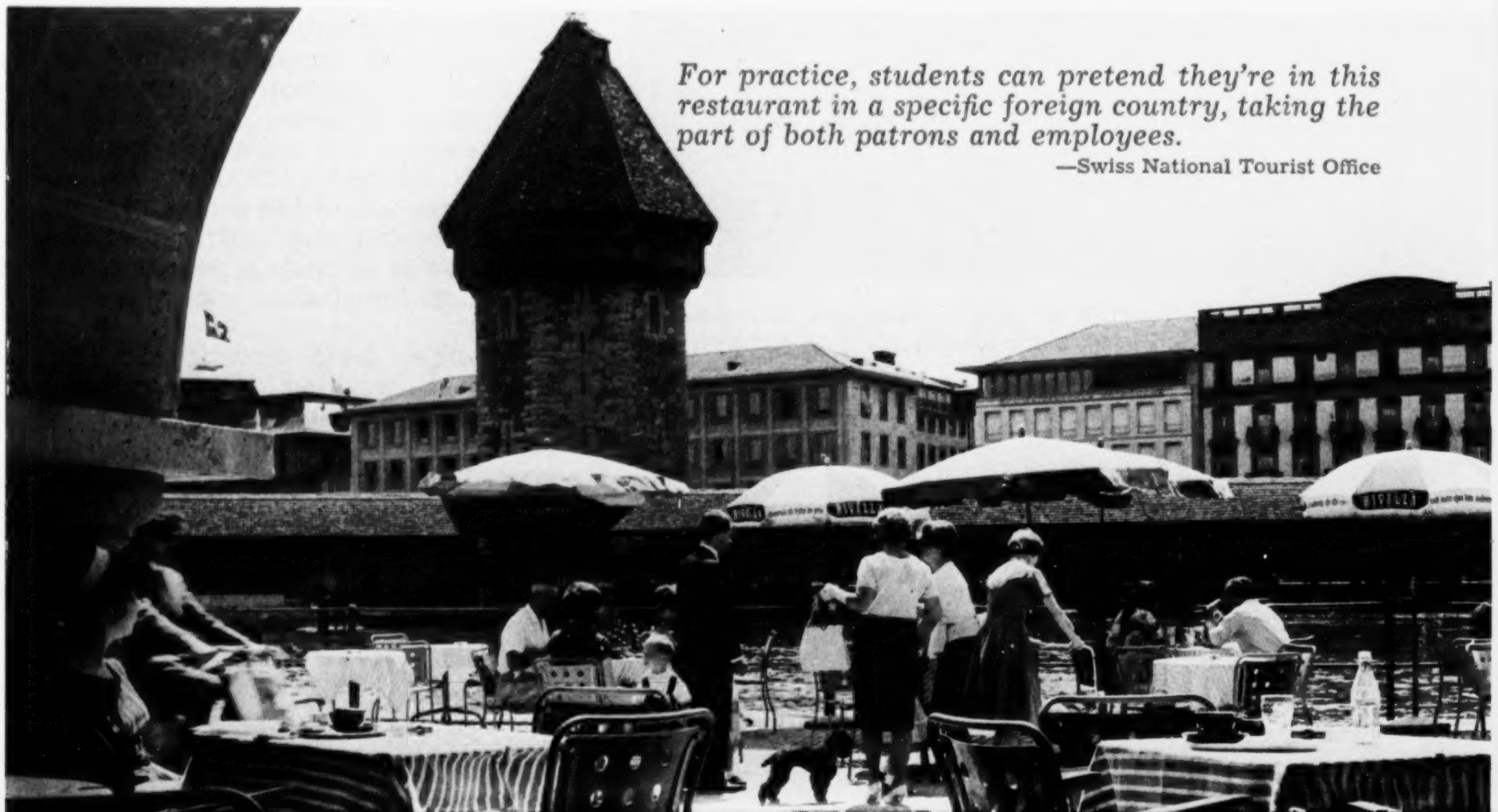
The use of programmed instruction in foreign language must also be considered in time allotment. Though foreign language programming has not been perfected, there has been progress in developing adequate materials. Some complete and usable materials may be ready in the near future for those schools looking toward avenues of more independent study in the foreign languages. The military has already taken steps in this direction. In some special programs the time required to make substantial progress in language learning has already been greatly compressed.

Considerations for grouping

It seems likely that any type of schedule for foreign language learning would work best if students were grouped according to language experience and achievement, rather than grade level. Some grouping will always take place based on criteria usually established by persons in charge of scheduling. In current experiments in secondary schools, students are being placed according to achievement and aptitude levels.

This means that grade lines are crossed. A student of French, for example, would not necessarily remain with the same group throughout years two, three and four of foreign language study. He would progress through levels one, two, three and perhaps four depending on his real progress in the language.

Level one might include beginning instruction in a foreign language. Level two of a language with large enrollment could divide students who are advancing in the language at greatly differing speed. Other levels of study in the language might include much independent study in depth, or even some study of history and culture in the foreign language.



For practice, students can pretend they're in this restaurant in a specific foreign country, taking the part of both patrons and employees.

—Swiss National Tourist Office

Nowadays foreign-language teachers are finding that slide projectors are useful tools in foreign language instruction.

—Tacoma Public Schools

Making the best use of time

How best to organize large group and small group activity is another of the problems with which many foreign language teachers are presently working. What types of material, for example, can well be presented to a group of perhaps 100-200 students? Certainly programmed instruction, lectures, filmstrips, televised lessons, musical recitals for enrichment of background and some sort of testing may be effectively given to large groups. As students become capable of presenting short plays, performing folk dances or making up skits, they may also wish to present their achievements before an audience; and here the large group arrangement should be ideal, provided that acoustics and seating are adequate.

Instruction in small groups of 8-15 is ideal for strengthening basic skills in pronunciation, speaking, reading and writing. The teacher will probably work extensively with structure drills here, and can give an amount of individualized drill and instruction not possible under the traditional grouping of 30-35 students. Original group activities will also develop in this situation. Here, too, students in larger schools, where an impersonal atmosphere may tend to develop, will have a chance to form some secure social relationships which may be very helpful, psychologically, in promoting interest and enjoyment in language learning.

Organizing the teaching staff

As the student's time table varies under more flexible scheduling, so also will that of the teacher, who may find need for additional preparation time within the school day in order that time modules spent with students may be used to maximum advantage. In situations where more than one teacher is engaged in teaching the same language, varied patterns of cooperative teaching may be organized for greater efficiency. Duties might be divided among the members of a teaching team, one of whom would concern himself with mapping and organizing the overall content of the courses, including construction of assignments and testing or evaluation. He would be in charge of large group presentations, organizing materials for student use and for a staff resource library.

Another team member, ideally a person well suited to working closely with students, would handle smaller groups and take charge of study supervision, giving help to individuals engaged in special projects. Probably the teacher in charge of larger group presentations would need more preparation time than would the study supervisor, though a period of experimenting on this point, perhaps for one or two semesters, would undoubtedly occur.

To a third member of the team would go such clerical duties as duplicating materials, preparing multimedia aids and checking material out to students. Such a worker might also be trained to monitor the language laboratory. He should have some college training, but might not be fully certificated as a teacher.

In the majority of Washington schools, however, one person will likely be doing all the teaching in a given language, and there are many systems in which the same teacher is working with two or more languages. In such situations more released time for such a teacher and the establishment of a well organized aide program become even more important.

Even under near-ideal circumstances, teaching a foreign language by modern methods is extremely demanding of energy and physical strength. It is important to guard against any schedule which may cause the teacher to become excessively fatigued. Rest periods, or at least changes of pace, become even more important than if traditional methods were employed. In most flexible programs, time spent by students in independent study can release teachers for planning time.

Elementary pupils learn to manipulate sentences in Spanish.

—Highline School District

Organizing space

The need for flexibility in planning extends to space as well as to time. Not only must provision be made for the adequate housing of large and small instructional groups, but also for the student's independent study in a quiet area well provided with resource materials. The teacher needs a similar area for privacy and lesson preparation, as well as a convenient place for conference with other teachers and with administrators.* He must have easy access to his instructional aids, and plenty of space for filing and storage cabinets.

The varieties of instruction discussed thus far suggest possible space facilities rather different from a square room for thirty pupils with teacher desk. In thinking about space in a unit to be built, teachers and administrators should have a list of specifications to guide the architect in designing foreign language facilities. *Such a specification list should include facilities:*

1. *For classroom instruction* in which there is modeling, drill and conversation in the target language. It is recommended that these classrooms be able to accommodate electronic equipment as indicated in Chapter 5.
2. *For programming by television* or television plus teacher or by other audio-visual aids.
3. *For language laboratory practice.* The conventional language laboratory with isolation booths is not a suitable place for the *classroom activities* of student drill, teacher modeling, dialogue and dramatization. Classroom activities should be held where open space permits unrestricted movement.

   Visual stimuli in an audio lab are best adapted if on film screen or TV receiver. Such visuals aid the intensive practice necessary to gain control of newly learned material.

   When planning a language lab it's a good idea to keep in mind the importance of frequent use and easy accessibility. Current research has repeatedly stressed the importance of both.

   A conventional 30-station lab may not be adequate for several classes of students to get in their needed practice time. An alternative (or supplement) can be the electronic classroom in which the audio equipment is close at hand for brief, daily, intensive follow-up of classroom activity.
4. *For independent study* that will allow the student to work without serious interference from other distracting activities in the same area. This could be a language laboratory as described above that provides a tape library service, or it could be an independent study center, or an audio-visual wing of the learning resource center.
5. *For programmed instruction,* which might be incorporated into number 4.

**See diagram III, page 86.*

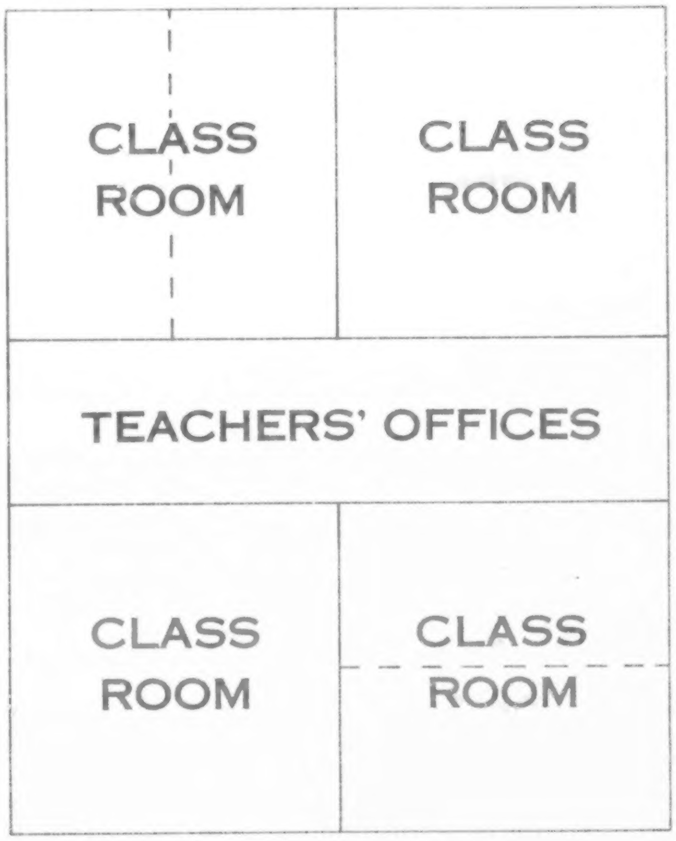
Foreign language supervisors plan a two-week workshop for elementary level Spanish teachers.
—Highline School District

If a district is planning a new school, careful thought should also be given to the special needs of foreign language learning. The language area needs to be free from distracting noises, whether from adjoining classroom and playgrounds or from building equipment such as the ventilating system. There must also be adequate light control because of increased use of visual materials.

On the following pages appear some drawings that illustrate possibilities for varied groupings of students, varied activities, access of teachers to planning centers, instructional areas and mechanical aids facilities and access of pupils to classrooms, laboratories and independent study areas.

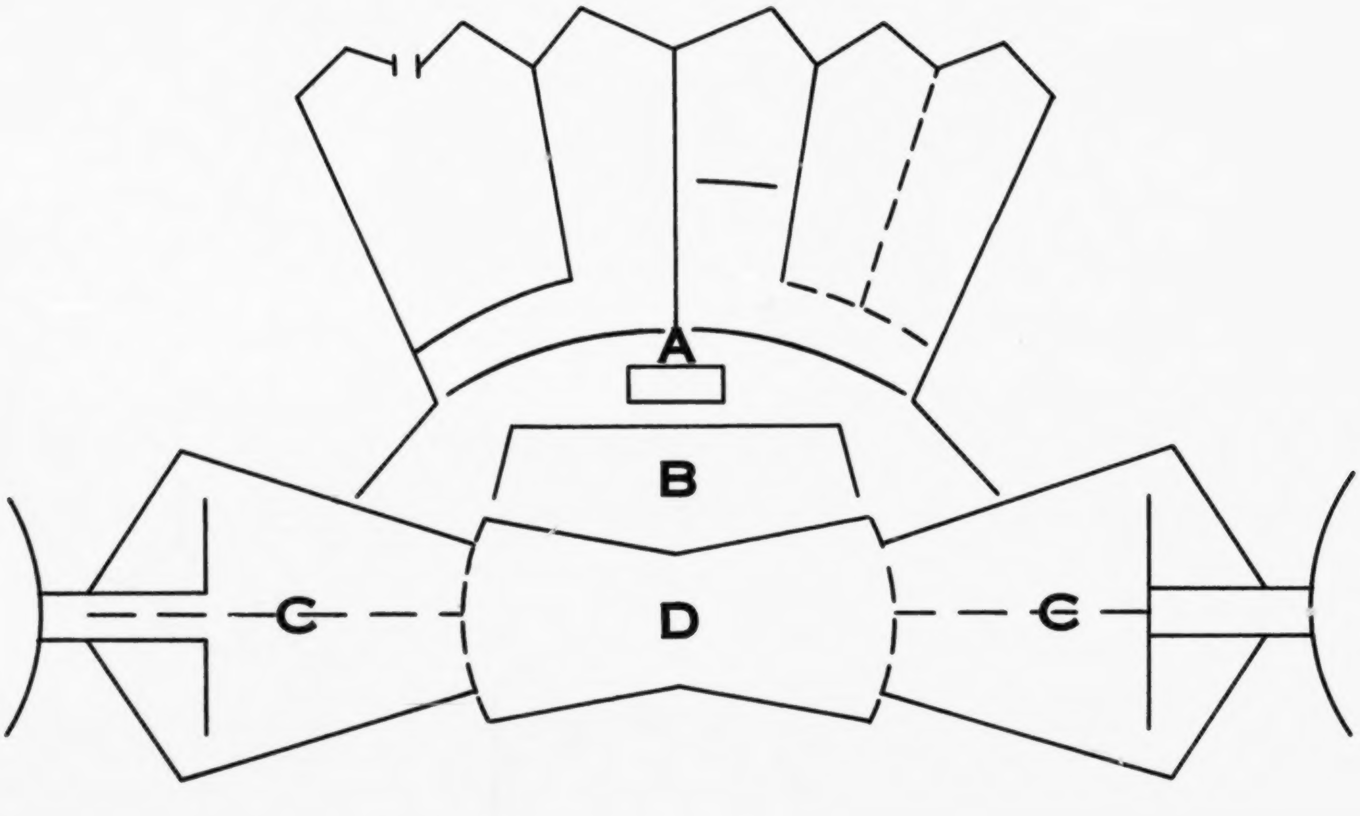
In providing for groups of various sizes, the use of movable walls or partitions will permit the same space to serve several needs:

Figure I.



Many older buildings might be modified in a pattern similar to the above. In Covina, California, an especially attractive plan was completed in 1963: see Plan II. New buildings such as this one offer special opportunities for creative planning.

Figure II.



A. 100-student classroom and two 30-student dividable classrooms or 175-student classroom

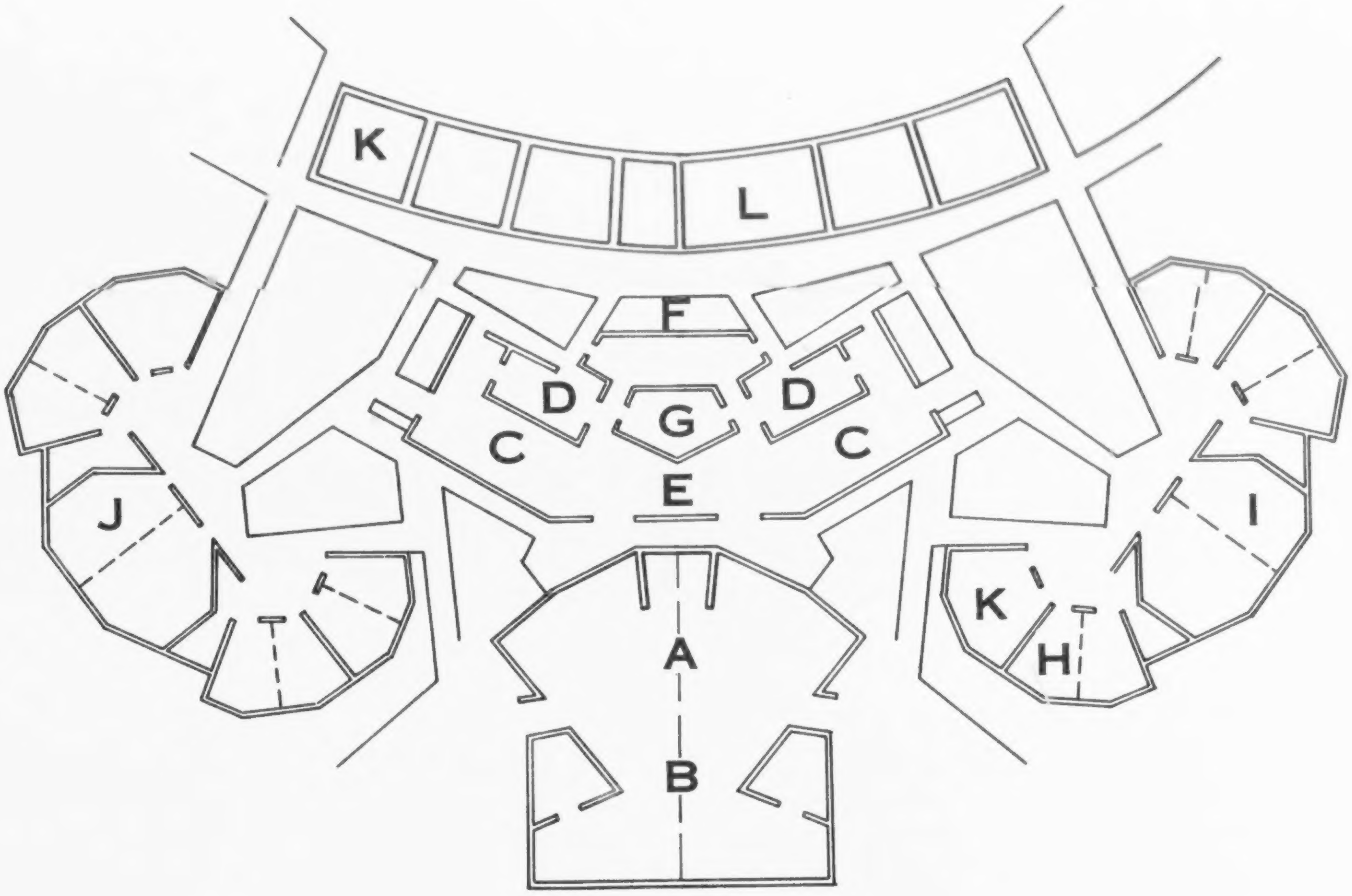
B. Teacher's workroom

C. Regular classrooms which can be combined

D. Language laboratories or regular classrooms. These classrooms may be electronic.

The South Hills High School, completed in 1964, provides a Humanities Center, with space for instruction in English, social studies, and foreign languages.

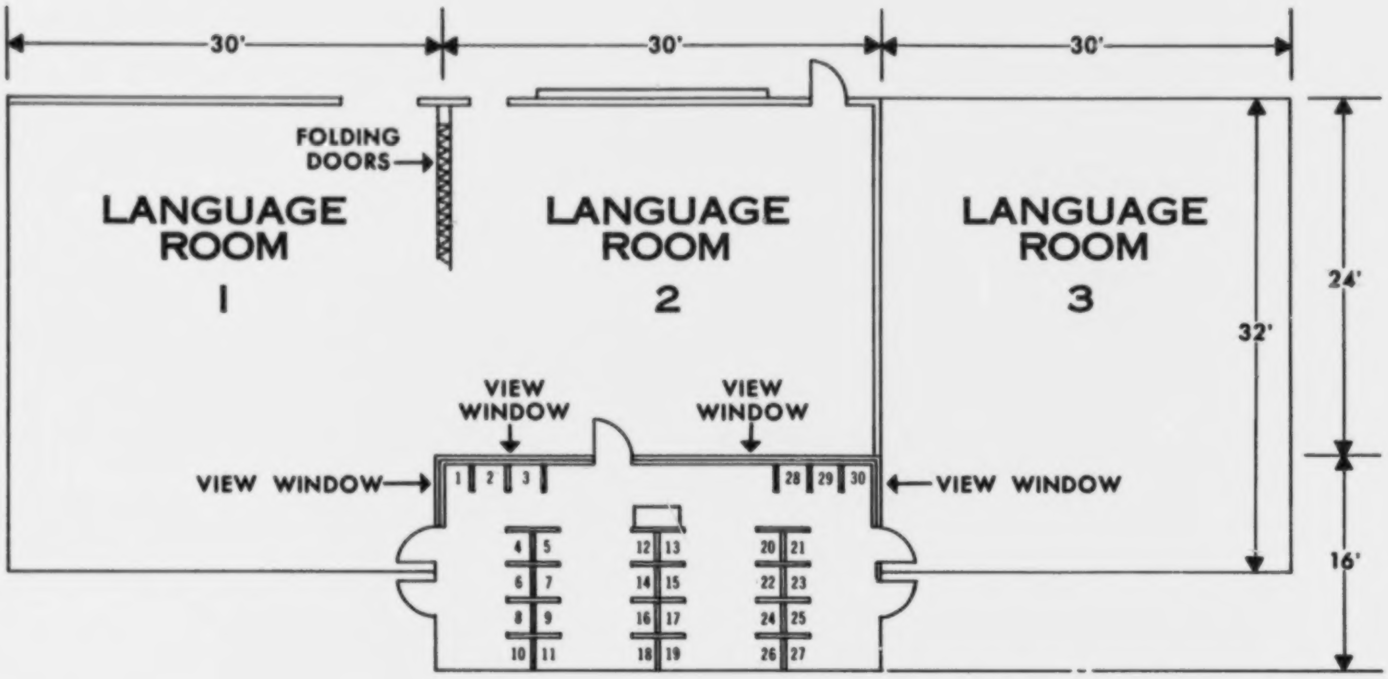
Figure III.



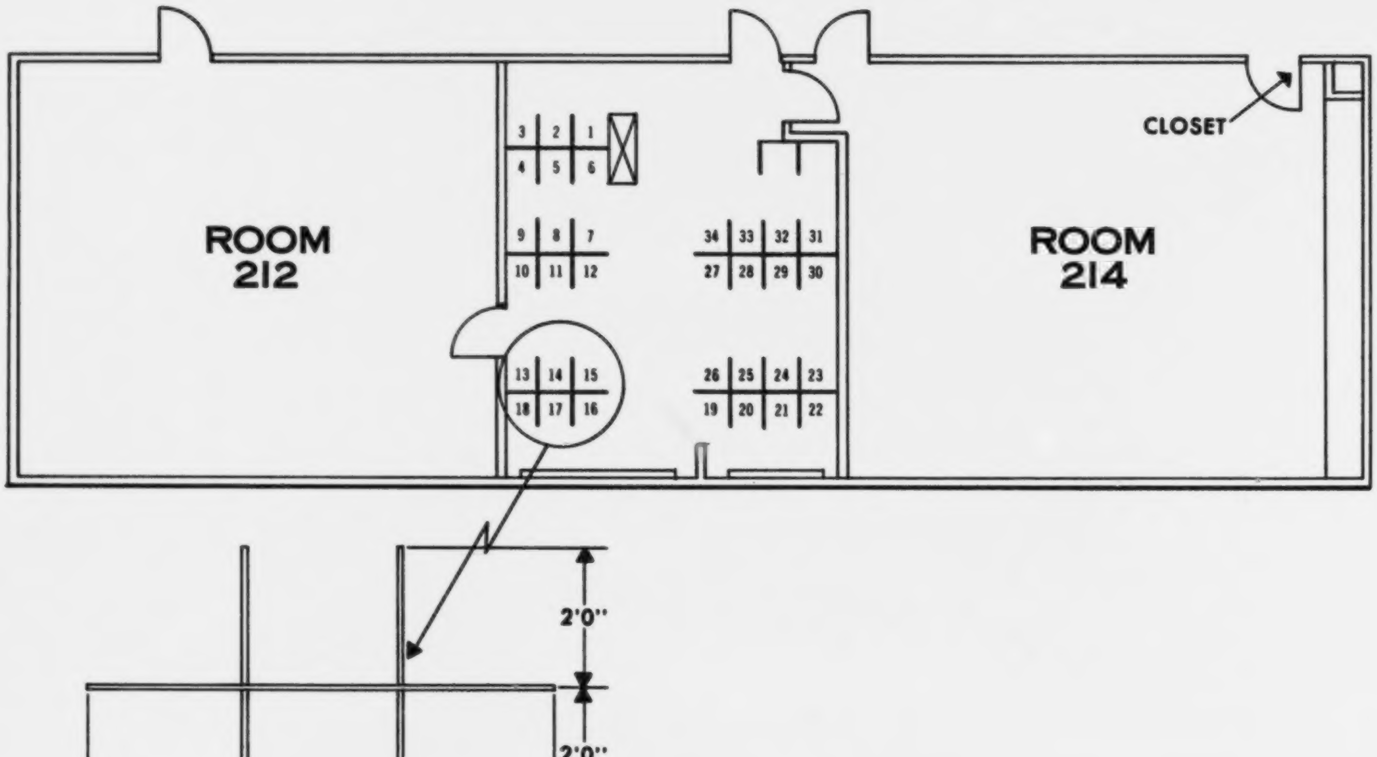
A. Large group presentation area—300 students—dividable
B. Stage
C. Individual study spaces
D. Teacher offices
E. Department library
F. Teacher conference and preparation area
G. Teacher-aide workroom
H. Dividable regular classroom
I. Regular classrooms which can be combined
J. Language laboratories
K. Regular classrooms
L. Reading laboratory

While initial expenditure for plan III will run higher than for the box-like compartments of yesterday's schools, dividends in comfort and efficiency for those using it will be incalculable. It should also serve the needs of the future with minimal changes necessary.

While this chapter does not prescribe any single way to organize language instruction, it is most important for all to be aware of some current trends that present both possibilities and problems in efficiently applying good principles of instruction.



(Above) In Chinook Junior High School (Highline School District), there is easy access from the language laboratory to the three language classrooms. Note that the folding doors between Rooms 1 and 2 provide for large group instruction.
(Below) An alternate plan provides for a language lab facility between two classrooms.
Oriental languages are being introduced into the curriculum in some school districts.



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